









FRANZ JOSEF
LAND

A R C T I C

NEW SIBERIA

TAIMYR PEN.

TUNDRA

ARCTIC CIRCLE

S I B E R I A

R U S S I A N E M P I R E

Sea of Okhotsk

Bering Sea

L. Balkash

C H I N E S E E M P I R E

Sea of Japan

Kabul

Peking

JAPAN

Bombay

India

Hongkong

MARIANNE OR LADRONE IS.

WAKE I.

Honolulu HAWAIIAN IS.

Arabic Sea

B. of Bengal

South China Sea

P H I L I P P I N E I S L A N D S

GUAM CAROLINE IS.

MARSHALL IS.

PALMYRA

Goa

ANDAMAN IS.

NICOBAR IS.

MINDANAO

GILBERT IS.

PHOENIX IS.

CEYLON

Singapore

BORNEO

CELEBES

NEW GUINEA

ELlice IS.

SOLOMON IS.

EQUATOR

SUMATRA

JAVA

NEW HEERIDES

FIJI IS.

TUTUILA I.

SAMOA IS.

I N D I A N

O C E A N

A U S T R A L I A

PERTH

SYDNEY

MELBOURNE

NEW ZEALAND

20

40

60

80

100

120

140

160

180

Longitude

East from

Greenwich

180

160

MAP OF THE

WORLD

SHOWING

UNITED STATES

AND ITS POSSESSIONS

United States Possessions in Red

Scale of Miles on the Equator

0

1000

2000

3000

4000

0

1000

60

80

100

120

140

160

180





GEORGE WASHINGTON

From the painting by Rothermel

AMERICAN HISTORY

FOR

GRAMMAR GRADES

BY
EVERETT BARNES, A.M.



GREAT SEAL OF THE UNITED STATES

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P R E F A C E

INTERESTING narrative — instead of condensation of unimportant facts and dates — is the best method of presenting the subject of history to children in grammar grades. It has been the author's aim in developing the essential facts of American history to awaken the interest and hold the attention of the pupils. In simplicity of vocabulary and style of narration, it is believed that this text will prove to be adapted to the requirements of class-room use.

As the interest of the child centers mainly in the men and women who have become great historical characters, the personal element has not been slighted. An important and valuable feature in method of treatment may be found in the correlation of American with concurrent European history.

In the arrangement of subject matter, the relative historical importance of topics has been observed. The elaborate table of contents, and the summaries and questions at the end of each chapter will be found helpful to both teacher and pupil. It has been the constant purpose to inspire the children, who are to become future citizens, with love for their country and its institutions and with respect and veneration for its great patriots, soldiers, and statesmen.

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AMERICAN HISTORY

CHAPTER I

EARLY PORTUGUESE AND SPANISH DISCOVERIES AND EXPLORATIONS

1. Early Mediterranean Trade Routes. — Five hundred years ago Europe was the home of the white race. Except parts of Africa, where the black race dwelt, and of Asia, the home of the yellow and the brown races, the white race knew nothing of the world outside of Europe. Asia is east of Europe, and with its people the Europeans traded. They had little or no trade with the Africans. To the west lay the Atlantic Ocean which, so far as they knew, had no end.

To carry goods to Asia, or the East, small ships called caravels were used. These sailed from Venice and Genoa, ports in the Mediterranean Sea. They went eastward, some to Alexandria, and some to the Black Sea.

2. The Great Question. — From these points goods were sent forward on the backs of camels. A number of camels with their drivers were called a caravan. The caravans with goods from the East met these ships and returned overland to ports in the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf with goods from the West. Thence the goods were sent in vessels to India, by way of the Indian Ocean. The Turks lived along these land routes. They were Mahometans, while the white traders of Europe were Christians, and between them there was war. Because of this it was very dangerous to go by caravan through the Turkish country.

The great question for the merchants of Europe was, "How can we get to India and back without passing through the land of the Turks?"

3. Portugal the First Nation to try to find a New Route. — Portugal, a country of Europe bordering on the Atlantic, was the home of many hardy and brave sailors. For years



CARAVAN CROSSING THE DESERT

these sailors had tried to find a way to India by going around the southern point of Africa, then known as "The Cape of Storms."

"Prince Henry the Navigator," son of a king of Portugal, sent ships south along the west coast of Africa to find the way around its southern end into the Indian Ocean. Each year Portuguese sailors went farther than they had gone before. But it was not until 1487 that one of them succeeded in sailing around the "Cape of Storms." This voyage was made by Bar-thol-o-mew Diaz (De'-ath). While sailing

along the western shore of Africa, he was driven south by a great storm. When the wind died away and the sea grew calm, he sailed to the east, expecting to come in sight of land.

The storm had carried his three little caravels so far to the south that when he turned east he sailed by the "Cape



EARLY TRADE ROUTES TO THE EAST

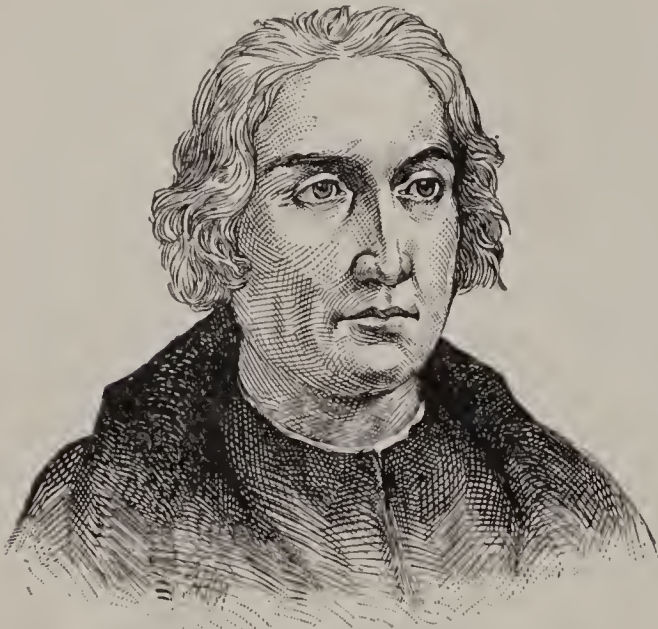
of Storms" into the Indian Ocean. Turning to the north, he passed along the east coast of Africa for about six hundred miles. Then sailing south, he again rounded the "Cape of Storms" and bore to the north for home. He reached Portugal about Christmas, 1487.

But the route was too long to be useful. Then the question was, "Can a shorter sea route than this be found?"

4. Columbus. — Others besides the wise men of Portugal were studying the question of a short water route to India.

Among them was Christopher Columbus, who was born about 1436 near Genoa, a city of Italy. When he was fourteen years old, he began to sail in the trading ships of the Mediterranean. In this way, while yet young, he became skillful in the art of sailing the small vessels of those days.

5. The Earth is Round. — Columbus, like many learned men of his time, believed that the earth is round. He thought

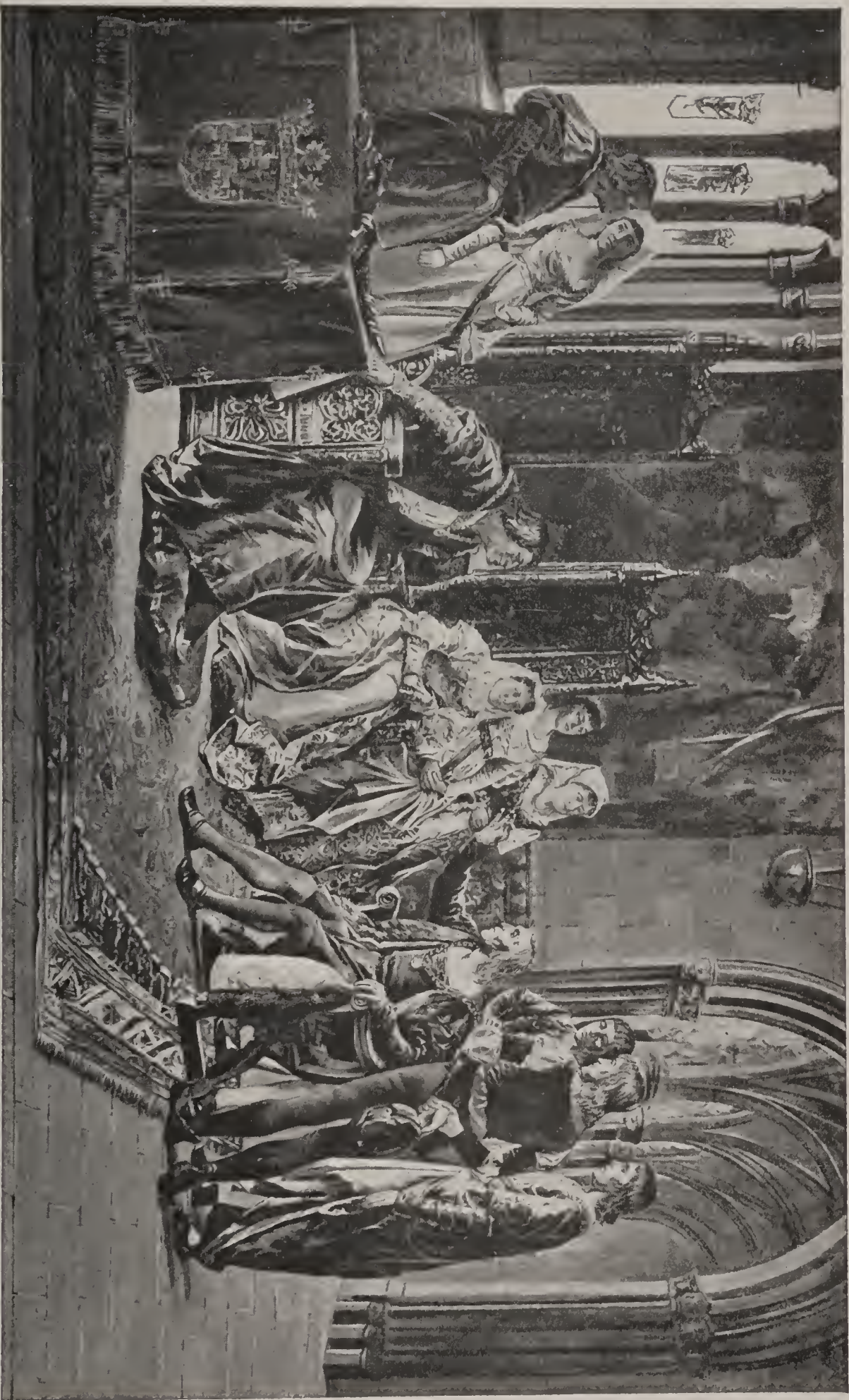


CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS

that by sailing west across the Atlantic Ocean, he could reach India. He thought that the earth was much smaller than it is, and that India reached much farther around it. He said that the way across the Atlantic must be a short one. He did not know that there was another body of land between the western shores of Europe and the eastern

coast of India. When he was about thirty-five years old he went to Lisbon, a city of Portugal. There he got some rare maps which had belonged to his father-in-law, who had been a skillful sailor.

6. Columbus forms a Plan. — His study of these maps strengthened his belief. He formed a plan to search for India by sailing west. But, being without money, he could not carry it out. He first went for aid to King John of Portugal. The king turned the matter over to a council of his wisest and most learned subjects. By their advice, he



COLUMBUS BEFORE FERDINAND AND ISABELLA AT CORDOVA

Painting by Francisco Joves

refused help and Columbus went away. That refusal cost Portugal the glory and profit of finding a new world.

The king did not aid Columbus, but he followed the plan that Columbus had given him. He sent a vessel of his own to find India. It sailed to the Cape Verde Islands and thence westward. It followed this course for several days, but meeting stormy weather, the sailors became frightened. They returned to Lisbon and said that the plan of Columbus was wrong, and that there could be no land in that terrible waste of waters.

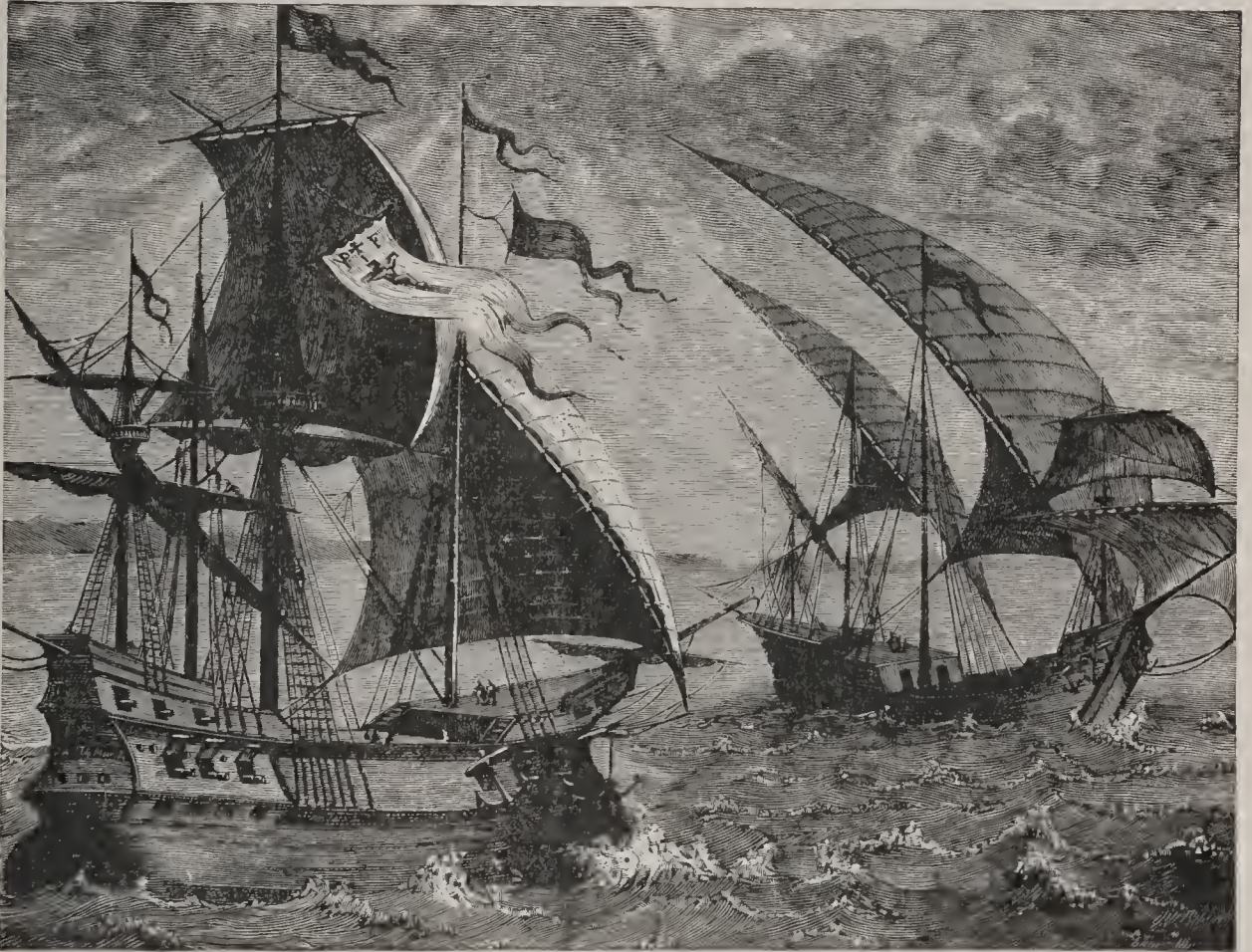
7. Columbus leaves Portugal and goes to Spain. — Angry at the trickery of the king, Columbus left Lisbon for Spain about 1484, where he began a struggle for aid which was to last more than seven years. Spending two years in following the king and queen from place to place, he at last got a hearing. They told him to appear at Salamanca, before some of the most learned men in Spain, and set forth his plans. Columbus did so, but his success was small. Only a few of those wise men thought as he did.

8. Columbus decides to leave Spain. — Five years afterward, Columbus again tried to get help from Isabella, queen of Spain, but failed. Disappointed, he decided to apply elsewhere for aid. He went to a village near Palos to get his son, whom he had left there seven years before. After leaving Palos, Columbus and his son Diego, then a lad of twelve, stopped at a convent to beg for food.

Here Columbus spoke of his plans and hopes with the good priest who had received him kindly. This priest, who had been the confessor of Queen Isabella, got for him another hearing with the king and queen. But it ended as before, and Columbus now resolved to apply for aid to France.

9. Columbus is called Back. Success. — He had set out

for France on mule-back, when a messenger from Isabella overtook him with an order to return. She had decided to help him. Obeying her order, Columbus went back. Plans were then made to give him the ships and men needful for



CARAVELS OF COLUMBUS

his voyage. After years of disappointment, his courage and perseverance had won success. His story shows how steadfast purpose may overcome poverty and ridicule.

10. First Voyage. — Columbus had great trouble in getting together his ships and crews. Men were afraid to go on a voyage so full of dangers, which were the more dreadful because they were unknown. But at length three small vessels were made ready, the *Santa Maria* (San-tä Ma-re'-a), *Pinta*, and *Niña* (Neen'yah). These vessels were hardly

seaworthy, the *Santa Maria*, the ship in which the commander was to sail, being the only one fully decked over.

The three little ships, manned by about a hundred and twenty sailors, sailed from the harbor of Palos on the morning of Friday, August 3, 1492, bound for the Canary Islands, whence they were to sail westward over the unknown sea. Some time was spent there in making repairs to one of the vessels. Then the little fleet sailed out boldly into the "Sea of Darkness."

All went well for a while. But as the days passed and the distance from home grew greater, the fears of the sailors began to overcome them and their courage gave way to ter-



MARINER'S COMPASS

ror. Ignorance as to where they were and how far they might have to sail added to their fright. Many of them, believing that the earth was flat, thought that they must be drawing near to the edge of the ocean, where they would surely fall off.

To guide him in his course Columbus had the mariner's compass. This had been invented and used for centuries. At one time during the voyage the needle of the compass did not point due north. This alarmed the ignorant sailors, until Columbus told them that the needle did not point to the north star, but to one near it, which was constantly moving, and caused the needle at times to point somewhat to the west of north. For determining his position at sea the great discoverer had the astrolabe, an instrument which has since gone out of use.

Columbus did all that he could to cheer his men. He made fun of their foolish fears. At one time they would not obey him and told him that they would throw him into the

sea. This state of things had been going on for a month, when signs of land were seen. A branch of a tree floated by one of the vessels, and a carved stick was picked up from the water by one of the sailors. A flock of land birds was seen flying to the southwest. All knew by these signs that land



LANDING OF COLUMBUS, OCTOBER 12, 1492

After the picture by Dioscora Puebla.

was near. Believing that the birds were flying toward land, Columbus turned his course to follow them.

11. Land Sighted. — On the evening of October 11, 1492, the watchful commander saw in the west what seemed to be a moving light. At the same time he heard from the other ships the cry of “Land!” All waited for what the break of day was to show. It was more than two months since they had left Spain, and every day had been a time of danger

and dread. As the sun rose, October 12, they saw before them a green and low-lying island. Columbus landed and, claiming the island for Spain, named it San Salvador, the Spanish words for Holy Saviour.

The natives were unlike any people that the Spaniards had ever seen. They were tall and graceful, of brown or cinnamon-colored complexion. They were peaceful and kind. As Columbus thought that he had reached India, he called these natives Indians. For the same reason, he called the islands that he had found the Indies. The Indians wore gold trinkets. The Spaniards, hoping to find gold, asked them by signs where they got them. They pointed to the south.

12. Cuba and Hispaniola. — Columbus sailed away in search of the land of gold, and reached the island which the Indians called Cuba. The men landed and made several journeys inland. Columbus thought that this island was the mainland of Asia, and wondered that he did not see the great and rich cities of which he had read.

He then sailed easterly along the coast of another island, which we know as Hayti, but which he called Hispaniola, or "Spanish Land." Here, on Christmas Day, his largest and best ship, the *Santa Maria*, was wrecked.

13. First Settlement in the New World. — He left forty of his men to found a settlement on the north coast of this island. This little settlement was called The Nativity, or in Spanish, La Navidad.

14. Return to Spain. — Pinzon, the captain of the *Pinta*, had run away and started for home, and Columbus then had only one ship, the *Niña*. Taking leave of the little settlement on Hispaniola early in 1493, he set the *Niña's* sails for Spain. On the way he overtook the *Pinta*, and the two



RECEPTION OF COLUMBUS BY FERDINAND AND ISABELLA ON HIS RETURN FROM HIS FIRST VOYAGE

Painting by R. Balaca

little caravels sailed together until they were separated by a storm. They did not meet again until they had reached the harbor of Palos.

The news of the return of Columbus caused wild excitement and great rejoicing. Through him Spain claimed the honor of finding a new and short route to India. At Barcelona, where the king and queen were staying at the time, he was received with the greatest honors.

15. Other Voyages of Columbus. — Columbus made three more voyages, on the last two of which he visited the mainland of both South and Central America.

He found no difficulty in procuring ships and sailors for his second voyage. The "Sea of Darkness" had been crossed. Its waste of water was no longer terrible to Spanish sailors. They now desired to learn more about this new-found land where the far West and the far East came together. They felt that further search would surely lead to the rich cities of China and India, where gold, spices, silks, and precious stones were plentiful.

16. Second Voyage. — Columbus left Cadiz on his second voyage in September, 1493. He commanded a fleet of three large ships and fourteen caravels, carrying fifteen hundred men. After touching the Canary Islands, the fleet set forth on its westerly course. Land was first seen early in November. This was a small island southeast of the present island of Porto Rico, and the Spaniards gave it the name Dominica. Shaping their course to the northwest and passing other small islands, they landed at Porto Rico. Leaving that port, Columbus went to the little colony of La Navidad, which had been founded the year before on the island of Hispaniola. The fort was in ruins and not one of the forty men left there was found. All of

them had been killed by the natives, with whom they had foolishly quarreled.

17. Second Settlement. — Moving farther to the east, the Spaniards built another settlement, which they named Isabella in honor of the queen. From here Columbus started with a body of armed men to explore the country. He found that



MAP OF THE VOYAGES OF COLUMBUS

the natives lived in villages and that they also grew maize, or Indian corn. Gold was discovered and some of it was sent back to Spain.

18. First Battle between White Men and Indians. — Early the next year (1494) Columbus set out from Isabella in search of what he thought would be the mainland of Asia. He sailed west with three caravels and, changing his course, reached the south coast of Cuba. A little later, while in these waters, he came to the island which the natives

called Jamaica. When the Spaniards landed on this island, they were met with a storm of arrows and javelins. But the Indians, who could not long withstand the Spaniards, fled.

Columbus was greatly pleased with the beauty of this island, but since those who lived there were savages, he thought it best to keep away. So he sailed back to the southern coast of Cuba, which he followed nearly to its western end. He thought that if he held this course long enough he would reach the Indian Ocean, and passing around the Cape of Good Hope, return to Spain. His men refusing to go farther, he sailed back to Hispaniola, where he remained about two years. After having been away from Spain for nearly three years Columbus at last reached Cadiz in June, 1496. He was kindly received by the king and queen. Shortly after Columbus had left Hispaniola, his brother Bartholomew founded San Domingo on the south coast of that island.

19. Third Voyage. — The great discoverer with a fleet of six vessels started on his third voyage in May, 1498. Stopping at the Canary Islands, Columbus ordered that three of his ships should sail for Hispaniola. With the other three, the great admiral sailed in a southerly direction to the Cape Verde Islands. Leaving these islands and steering southwesterly, he crossed the Atlantic. By sailing in this direction, on a southerly course, he thought that he might clear the coast of Cuba, and sail into the Indian Ocean. If he could do this, Spain would share with Portugal the rich trade of India, and by a shorter route.

20. Columbus finds the Continent. — About August 1st Columbus reached the island of Trinidad, at the mouth of the Orinoco River on the coast of South America. From the length and the nature of the coast he knew that he had found

the mainland of a continent. This, he thought, must be Asia, and he believed that somewhere there must be a strait through which he could pass to the Indian Ocean. He sailed westerly along the north coast of the continent, for about



THE EXPLORATIONS OF COLUMBUS

two hundred miles. But he did not find the strait for which he was looking. Disappointed at this, he started for Hispaniola and reached San Domingo in August, 1498.

He had not been there for more than two years, and he found that while he was away there had been much trouble. Some of the Spanish settlers had joined the natives and were trying to overthrow the rule of Columbus's brother Bartholomew.

In the summer of 1500, Bobadilla was sent from Spain to take command of Hispaniola. On his arrival, he arrested Columbus and threw him into prison. The reason he gave for doing this was that Columbus had made slaves of the natives and was trying to set up a government of his own. Upon this false charge Columbus was placed on shipboard, in chains, and sent to Spain.

With his chains still upon him, Columbus arrived in Cadiz. But the good Queen Isabella, shocked at the news and angry at the treatment of Columbus, ordered that he be set free and brought to her. When he saw his queen, Columbus, now an old man, burst into tears. The charges against him were dismissed and he was promised further favor.

21. The Portuguese reach India by Sea. — While Columbus was on his third voyage, the Portuguese were not idle. Vasco da Gama had made a voyage to India by way of the Cape of Good Hope. He was the first to find India by sailing around Africa.

Starting in 1497, Da Gama returned to Lisbon after an absence of two years and told wonderful stories of the strange land he had visited. He brought home spices, ivory, precious stones, and silks. This success of Portugal in finally reaching India led to the fourth voyage of Columbus.

22. Fourth Voyage. — Columbus left Cadiz on this last venture in May, 1502, in command of four caravels and one hundred and fifty men. As a new governor had been sent to Hispaniola, Columbus was forbidden to land there. It was feared that his presence might stir up trouble. He did, however, enter the harbor of San Domingo in June. His purpose was to procure another caravel, for one of his boats had become unseaworthy. The new governor ordered Columbus to depart from the harbor. The great admiral, grieved at

such treatment, sailed southwest and came to anchor on the coast of the country now called Honduras.

23. Hunting for a Way to India. — He spent the fall of the year 1502 in coasting along the shores of that country, first to the east and then to the south. He sailed more than seven hundred miles, looking for a strait through which he might pass to the Indian Ocean. The natives had told him by signs that to the south was a “narrow way,” which would bring him to a large ocean on the west coast. They meant the narrow Isthmus of Darien, and not a strait. But Columbus thinking that he was on the coast of Asia, believed that he might “round” the Malay peninsula and enter the Strait of Malacca.

Columbus and his men at last began to suffer from lack of food, and he bore away for Hispaniola. Sailing to the north, the fleet was driven westerly and land was first sighted on the south coast of Cuba, north of the island of Jamaica.

24. Castaways on the Island of Jamaica. — Here the vessels were badly damaged by a severe storm, but Jamaica was finally reached. The ships were leaking and could sail no farther. They were drawn on land, and a fort was made of their timbers, in which the shipwrecked men had shelter from wind and weather. And so Columbus and his crews found themselves castaways on the coast of Jamaica. Two of the bravest men, with some natives and other Spaniards, went to the island of Hispaniola for help. Their boat was only a frail canoe, but reaching that island, they made their way to the town of San Domingo. They told the governor where Columbus was and that he was shipwrecked, but no help was sent for a year. It was a time of great danger for Columbus, when the governor of Hispaniola at last sent two

caravels to Jamaica, which carried the shipwrecked men to San Domingo.

25. Death of Isabella and Columbus. — Fast aging from his labors and hardships and sorrowing at the treatment he had received, Columbus returned to Spain, November, 1504. His best friend, the good Queen Isabella, died a few days

after his return, and he suffered all the pains of neglect, poverty, and sickness. He died in May, 1506, when about seventy years of age. To the day of his death, he thought that the mainland that he had twice visited was the coast of Asia.



AMERICUS VESPUCIUS (AMERIGO VESPUCCI)

26. Americus Vesputius, the Florentine. — When Christopher Columbus was about six-

teen years old, another Italian boy was born, who was to be famous in the story of America. Florence, a city about one hundred and fifty miles from Genoa, was his birthplace. His name was Americus Vesputius. He was of good family and when young worked for one of the leading merchants of his native city.

When older, he visited Spain and made a business of ship-building and furnishing supplies for ships. He had a fair

education and was skillful in telling in what part of the sea the ship was, on which he was sailing. Thus his services were helpful to ship captains. In the stories of his first and third voyages, he tells that King Ferdinand of Spain sent him on his first voyage in 1497. From what he says of this voyage, it appears that he first landed on the coast of Honduras in the summer of that year.

It is said that from Honduras, Vespuceius sailed along the bend of the coast of the Gulf of Mexico. Passing between Cuba and Florida, he went northerly, following the coast of the present United States, perhaps as far as Chesapeake Bay.

In 1499, Vespuceius began his second voyage, again sailing in the service of Spain. This time he reached the northern coast of Brazil, in South America, which he followed northwesterly as far as Lake Maracaibo, in the western part of the country we now call Venezuela.

His third and fourth voyages were made in the service of King Emanuel of Portugal. The third was the most important, for he sailed his three little vessels southerly along the coast of South America. Leaving the coast he turned his course to the southeast and went as far as the cold waters of the Antarctic Ocean, whence he was driven back by float-



EXPLORATIONS OF VESPUCEIUS

ing ice. He knew from the vast extent of the coast, that this land body was a great continent.

On his fourth voyage, 1503-1504, Vespuccius sailed along the coast of what is now Brazil, as far as the present city of Rio Janeiro. The name America, in honor of Americus Vespuccius, was first given to Brazil and later to all of the great western continents.

27. Ponce de Leon. — Ponce de Leon, a Spaniard, was a companion of Columbus on one of his voyages. He had been a brave soldier in the wars with the Moors, who had come from Africa and had for centuries overrun Spain.

When De Leon reached the Indies, he was placed in command of the Spanish soldiers at San Domingo. From this place he made several journeys. He went to Porto Rico, and was told by the Indians that gold could be found in its mountains. Having been made governor of that island, he treated the helpless natives with great cruelty.

28. "The Fountain of Youth." Florida. — It was said that in one of the neighboring islands to the north there was a wonderful spring. By bathing in it, or by drinking of its waters, old men might become young. In the year 1513 Ponce, who was then old and feeble, sailed northwesterly from Porto Rico in search of this spring. He came to a beautiful shore that was fragrant with the odor of flowers. He landed on Easter Sunday near the present town of St. Augustine, and called the beautiful land Florida. The natives were more warlike than those of Porto Rico, and they resisted his efforts to explore their country. Returning to Porto Rico, he went to Spain and reported his discovery. This so pleased his royal master, that he appointed De Leon governor of the land that he had found.

De Leon believed that the delightful country which he had

discovered was rich in gold, and in 1521 he sailed again to Florida. He took with him a large force of well-armed men and a number of horses. But the natives fought and checked his advance into their country, and in one of the battles he was wounded by an arrow. The wound caused his death in Cuba, a few months later.



LANDING OF PONCE DE LEON AT FLORIDA

29. Balboa. — There was a young Spaniard of good family who had left Spain because he was in debt and threatened with imprisonment, and who, at San Domingo, got into more trouble of the same kind. His name was Vasco Nuñez de Balboa (Noon'-yeth dā Bal-bo'a). About this time (1509), preparations were being made in Hispaniola for a visit of discovery to Central America. Balboa wished to go in order to get away from those to whom he owed money.

He hid in one of the ships until it was well out at sea. It is said that he was carried aboard, hidden in a large barrel. As soon as he thought it safe, he came out of his hiding place. When the ships arrived at the Isthmus of Darien, Balboa managed to place himself at the head of the com-

pany, and became very active in exploring the country.

30. Balboa discovers the Pacific Ocean. — Having been told that beyond the mountains, to the west, there was an ocean, and that gold could be found along its shores, Balboa set out with about two hundred men, to see if the story was true. After a time they came to a high mountain up which he went alone.

When he reached the top, he saw the



BALBOA DISCOVERS THE PACIFIC OCEAN

largest and grandest ocean in the world.

The first white man to behold it, he named this vast water the South Sea. It was what we now call the Pacific Ocean. Four days afterward Balboa reached this wonderful sea. He waded into it and, with drawn

sword, declared that it belonged, by right of discovery, to the king of Spain. This happened in September, 1513.

31. Cortés; Exploration and Conquest of Mexico. — In 1517 Cordova, a Spanish sailor, left Cuba and visited the coast of Yucatan. In the following year, Grijalva (Grē-häl'-va), another Spanish explorer, visited the same country and sailed along its coast. These two men have been called the discoverers of Mexico. The stories they told led to the further searching out of that country by Hernando Cortés.

Cortés was a Spanish soldier who went in 1504 from Spain to the settlement of San Domingo. From there he was sent to Cuba, in 1511, to take part in the settlement of that island. After spending some years there, he was ordered by the governor to visit the region we now call Mexico.



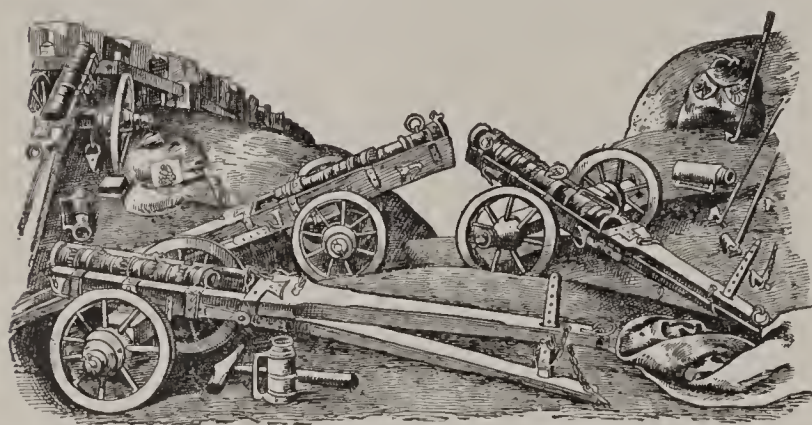
THE ARMOR OF CORTÉS

After an engraving of the original in the National Museum, Madrid

32. Troops of Cortés. — He had in his army about five hundred Spanish soldiers, with some Indians from Cuba. He took with him a few small cannon. Some of his men were armed with a kind of gun called the arquebus. Others carried cross-bows, which they used with deadly effect.

Some of the Spaniards had horses. The natives of Mexico, or Aztecs, as they were called, had never seen such animals.

The horses and their riders frightened them, for they thought that rider and horse were one animal. They were also greatly frightened at the noise of the cannon. Soon after landing there was a sharp battle in which Cortés defeated the natives. To fight against the deadly weapons



CANNON OF THE TIME OF CORTÉS

There are in the naval museum at Annapolis guns captured in the Mexican War supposed to be those used by Cortés.

of the strange white men, the poor Indians had only lances, javelins, bows and arrows, and heavy wooden swords.

After this fight, Cortés and his men moved westward along the coast until a place was

reached which seemed good for a settlement. Here Cortés built a small town, giving it the name (Vera Cruz) which, as a city, it bears to-day. Fearing that he would be called to Cuba by the governor of that island, Cortés sank his ships.

33. The City of Mexico. — Having been told of a city far back from the coast, Cortés set out to take it. Moving westward, he began his march in the summer of 1519. When he had covered about half of his journey, he was attacked by a large body of natives. Very few of the Spaniards were killed, while the Aztecs lost many of their best warriors.

Marching on, he came to a village where a plot had been made by the natives to destroy his army by falling upon it at night. But Cortés heard of the plan in time to prepare for it, and in the battle that followed he put his foes to flight.

At last, the Spaniards came to the eastern shore of a lake, and looking out over its waters saw the ancient town of Mexico. The wonderful town which the Spaniards now beheld was built upon an island in the lake, and was connected with the mainland by three roads which ran in dif-



THE CITY OF MEXICO UNDER THE CONQUERORS

From the engraving in the "Nieuwe Wereld" of Montanus

ferent directions. The roads were four or five miles long and from twenty to thirty feet wide.

34. Montezuma. — Montezuma, the Aztec ruler of the city, sent the Spaniards gold and asked them to leave his country. But this sign of wealth made the Spaniards more eager to take the city. Montezuma, thinking it the wisest thing to do, asked them to come into the town. The Spaniards entered, being met by Montezuma at the gates.

Cortés had noticed, in his fights with the natives, that if their chief were taken, they lost heart and gave way. So he made Montezuma his prisoner.

Cortés was now the real ruler, and passed the winter in the very heart of the enemies' country. But he was not idle and spent the time in building small vessels, with which to retreat by way of the lake in case of sudden attack.

About this time the Aztecs chose Montezuma's brother for their chief and leader, and under his command they at once began an attack upon the Spaniards. The cannon of the Spaniards did terrible work, but the natives fought from the tops of neighboring houses.

35. Cortés Leaves the City. — The Spaniards were now in great peril. Cortés, fearing that his men would have to yield for want of food, saw that he must get away. He marched his force one night to one of the roads leading out of the city. While on this narrow way, he was again attacked by the maddened natives, who swarmed in their canoes on each side of it. After a deadly fight, which lasted all night, Cortés and his men forced their way to the mainland. A few days later, the natives again attacked him, but met with a crushing defeat.

Cortés now wisely spent his time in winning over the natives of the country around the lake, many of whom joined his little army. Again he marched his men to the lake, where more of the natives, being friendly, joined his army. Here he spent some time in building small vessels which could be used in a fresh attack.

36. Capture of the City. — In April, 1521, he began his movement against the city. The struggle was fierce and bloody, for the natives knew they were fighting for their lives and their homes, and they were reckless in their bravery.

At last, in the month of August, after terrible fighting for a period of nearly four months, the city was taken by the Spaniards. Thus the Aztec nation was conquered by Cortés,

and Mexico became a Spanish province, so to remain for about three hundred years.

37. Ferdinand Magellan, 1519–1522. — The third and fourth voyages of Americus Vespuccius were made along the eastern coast of South America. His account of one of these two voyages greatly interested other navigators, among whom was Ferdinand Magellan, who set out to find a westerly passage to India through or around South America. He offered to do this for Emanuel, who was then king of Portugal. His offer was refused. He then went to the king of Spain, who employed him. Thus, for a second time, Portugal threw away the chance of discovering new lands by the western route across the “Sea of Darkness.”



FERDINAND MAGELLAN

38. Magellan Starts. — A fleet of five ships was made ready, and with Magellan as admiral, left Spain in September, 1519. There were in this little fleet about three hundred men. In about a month it had crossed the ocean, reaching the coast of the country now called Brazil. Continuing his way to the south, the great sailor found harbor in March, 1520, on the coast of the country now known as Patagonia. As the long winter of this region was just beginning, he anchored there for the season.

39. Straits of Magellan. — In August, which in the Southern seas is a winter month, the cold weather was becoming less severe. Then Magellan sailed south, in search of a

strait through which he could pass to the South Sea, as the Pacific was then called. About this time one of the ships was wrecked. The captain of another sailed away and took his vessel back to Spain. The little fleet, now reduced to three small ships, at last entered that great strait which ever since has borne the name of the brave Magellan.

40. On the Pacific Ocean. — After many hardships, Magellan, in November, 1520, sailed out upon the broad waters of the ocean which Balboa had seen seven years before from the mountains of Darien, thousands of miles to the north. This vast body of water he named the Pacific Ocean.

Then came a time of great suffering and hardship; but, with a stout heart, Magellan steered for the northwest. Food and water ran short, and the crews suffered from hunger, thirst, and sickness. Sailing for more than three months, Magellan reached the Ladrone Islands, which lie east of the Philippines and south of Japan. He was the first to cross the Pacific. Ten days later, in March, 1521, the weary sailors reached the Philippine Islands. The finding of these islands gave them to Spain, and they were held by that nation for nearly four hundred years.

41. Death of Magellan. — Magellan was killed in the Philippines in a fight between neighboring islanders in which he took part. One of his ships which was unfit for service was destroyed. The two other vessels sailed south to the Molucca or Spice Islands. After stopping there for some time, one of them, the *Victory*, sailed westerly, bound for home. She left the Moluccas about Christmas, 1521, with fifty men on board, most of whom were sick and worn.

42. Into the Atlantic Ocean Again. — After a voyage of some months, spent in crossing the Indian Ocean, she at

last reached the Cape of Good Hope. Rounding this cape and entering the Atlantic Ocean, the little *Victory*, turning to the northwest, sailed for Spain. Manned by a few sick and half-starved men she reached that country in September,



THE "VICTORY" IN THE STRAIT OF MAGELLAN

1522. This voyage, the first one around the world, was then the longest that had ever been made. Three years had passed since the little fleet left Spain. When we think of the length and the perils of this voyage, and the small size and bad condition of the vessels, we must wonder that even one of the ships reached home.

43. What the Voyage Proved. — From this time it was known that a vast continent lay to the westward of Europe, barring the way to the shores of Asia. There was no longer doubt that the earth is round.

44. Pizarro. — The Spanish colonists on the Isthmus of Darien, barred from exploring the rich country to the north, already conquered by Cortés and his followers, turned to the south in their search for gold.

Francis Pizarro had landed on the coast near Darien, in one of the voyages made from Hispaniola. When Balboa was making his famous journey across the isthmus, one of the native chiefs told him that, far to the south, on the shores of the great ocean, was a land very rich in gold. Pizarro, hearing the remark, made up his mind that he would at some time visit that country. But he did not get the chance until some years later.

45. Pizarro tries to find Peru. — At last he decided to start on a voyage of discovery to this unknown coast. His fleet came back badly damaged by wind and weather. He tried again two years later (1526), and landed some of his men on the coast. He was still a long distance from Peru, and sent one of his ships back to Panama for more men and supplies. While he was waiting for help from Panama, one of his pilots sailed south in the remaining ship. He passed the equator and on the coast of the country we now call Ecuador captured some natives. These he carried back to Pizarro, and they told him of the extent and richness of the country of the Incas, as the natives of Peru were called.

The supplies from Panama arrived, and Pizarro went forward and landed on a small island near the coast. He had not been there long when a ship came which had been sent

to bring him and his men back to Panama. Pizarro refused to go. Drawing a line upon the sand, he stepped across it and said to his men, "Those of you who are brave enough, follow me." Sixteen of the men crossed the line. The rest returned to Panama. For the next seven months Pizarro and his men suffered much from lack of food.

46. He finds Peru. — At last a ship was sent to their aid from Panama. Embarking in this, the entire party sailed south, reached the northern coast of Peru, and landed at one of the cities of the Incas. Here the Spaniards found a people unlike any they had ever seen. They were somewhat like the Aztecs, but were not so savage, and they did not kill war-captives. The Incas worshiped the sun.

Leaving this place, they sailed along the coast southward about six hundred miles beyond the equator. Having found a vast and rich country for Spain, the Spaniards returned to Panama, and Pizarro went to Spain where he was received with great honor.

47. The Incas. — Before the coming of Pizarro, the Incas, a half-civilized people, had ruled over a large portion of the western and northwestern part of South America. They were skillful in building roads, and they fitted together with great exactness the huge stones with which their buildings and temples were made. The Incas used the llama as a beast of burden and were the only people of the new world to use animals for this purpose. They were rich in gold and silver, of which the Spaniards took great quantities. Remains of their temples and the gold and silver ornaments used by them have been found in various places.

48. Vasquez de Ayllon. — The Spanish voyages thus far had not extended north of the southern part of North America. A Spaniard named De Ayllon [dā Ah-eel-yōne'], living at

San Domingo, set out to get more slaves to work in the mines which he owned in Hispaniola. He fitted out two vessels and sailed to the northwest to visit the mainland. He first saw the coast of South Carolina. Upon landing he was treated by the natives with great kindness. The Spaniards, however, were cruel to them. They invited a number of the natives to visit their vessels, and when they were



RUINS OF FIRST SPANISH SETTLEMENT IN PERU

aboard sailed away. But the poor captives in one of the vessels sickened and died, and the other ship was wrecked.

In 1526 De Ayllon visited the James River. The natives along the coast had not forgotten him and his doings. Shortly after the Spanish landed, the Indians invited them to a great feast. The Spaniards ate and drank their fill for a number of days. At last sleep overcame them, and as they slept, the Indians killed nearly all of them. De Ayllon escaped, but died shortly afterward.

49. Narvaez. — The success of Cortés in Mexico led to

new efforts by other Spanish explorers. The governor of Cuba once sent a body of soldiers to Mexico to take the command from Cortés. The leader of this small army was a Spaniard named Panfilo de Narvaez (Pan'-fē-lo dā Nar-vä'-eth).

50. He visits Florida. — In the fight with Cortés Narvaez was badly wounded, and taken prisoner. When he was set free, he returned to Spain. In 1527 he sailed from that country to explore and conquer Florida. After spending some time at San Domingo and in Cuba, he landed with about four hundred men and some horses, on the west coast of Florida in April, 1528. He thought that Florida might be as rich in gold as Mexico. Ordering his small fleet to move along the coast, he traveled inland with some of his men. His cruel and treacherous treatment of the natives angered them, and they fought him at every point. He worked back to the coast, and though he spent many weary days in searching for them could not find his ships.

51. All except Four Perish. — Some of his men built small boats, and coasted westward along the Gulf of Mexico, until they came to the mouth of the Mississippi River. They suffered severely from thirst, hunger, and hardship, dying one by one on the way, until only four were left. Narvaez was drowned, while the four that lived wandered for years among the Indians. In 1536, after eight years in the wilderness, they reached the western coast of Mexico at the Gulf of California. There they told some of their countrymen living in an outlying settlement, that in their wanderings, they had found seven great cities of vast wealth. They had seen no such cities, but had probably visited some of the villages of the Zuñi Indians. The Zuñi houses were built of stone and sun-dried clay, and were several stories high.

They were called pueblos (pwéb-los). The ruins of these villages may still be seen in the western part of New Mexico and in southern Arizona.

52. The Expedition of Coronado. — Catholic priests went among the Indians as missionaries. They built in the wilds many little chapels or churches. These chapels were called missions. Father Mark, a priest of one of these Spanish



A ZUÑI PUEBLO FROM A DISTANCE

missions in Mexico, made a journey to the northeast in 1539. His companions, after their return, said that they had seen one of the “seven great cities,” that Narvaez’s men had told about. These stories led to an expedition made by Coronado.

Francisco Vasquez de Coronado (Fran-cis’-ko Vas’-keth da Cor’-o-nä-do) was, at this time, the Spanish governor of a province of Mexico. He started from the Gulf of California with about twelve hundred men, and was gone two years. He found no cities, though he visited a number of pueblos. Traveling in a northeasterly direction, he crossed the Rocky Mountains and probably passed through the country now

54. He discovers the Mississippi River. — In 1539 De Soto sailed from Cuba to see what he might find in Florida. He had a fleet of ten vessels which he had brought from Spain, and with him were a thousand men. He took with him a number of horses. Landing on the west coast of Florida, at Tampa Bay, he sent some of his boats along the coast nearly to Appalachee Bay. He then moved northward and spent the winter in the northwest part of Florida. Early in the next year he marched northerly to what is now the northern part of Georgia. Thence he traveled southwest, across Alabama, to the site of the present city of Mobile. He then journeyed northwest and in April, 1541, reached the Mississippi River. Crossing the river not far from where Memphis now stands, he moved south along its western bank. Then, turning to the west, he crossed Arkansas. Still moving southward, the party at length reached the mouth of the Red River, where in May, 1542, De Soto died. He was buried in the water of the great river he had discovered.

By this time about half of his men had sickened and died or had been killed by the Indians. After spending a year on the west bank of the Mississippi River, those who were left built small vessels, sailed down the river to the Gulf, and thence made their way to Mexico.

SUMMARY

1. The closing of the overland routes to India by the Turks, about the middle of the fifteenth century, led to search by Portugal for an all-water route.
2. Da Gama, a Portuguese navigator, discovered such a route to India by sailing around Africa (1497-1499).
3. Columbus tried to find India by sailing westward, but found instead some islands belonging to an unknown continent. This amounted to his discovering the continent itself.



DE SOTO'S DISCOVERY OF THE MISSISSIPPI

After the painting by W. H. Powell in the Capitol at Washington

4. The honor of making this great continent known to the white race belongs to Spain, whose queen, Isabella, furnished Columbus with means for the voyage.
5. The natives of this continent were called by Columbus "Indians," a name they still bear.
6. Americus Vesputius, an Italian navigator, while employed by Portugal, coasted along that part of the Western continent called Brazil (1501-1502). The Western continent was named America because it was made known by Americus.
7. Ponce de Leon visits Florida (1513).
8. Balboa discovered the South Sea or Pacific Ocean (1513).
9. Magellan crosses the Pacific Ocean (1520).
10. Cortés explored and conquered Mexico (1519-1521).
11. Pizarro invaded and conquered Peru (1524-1541).
12. De Soto discovers the Mississippi (1541).

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. Why did it become necessary to search for an all-water route to India?
2. What country was most active at first in this search?
3. Who made the first all-water journey to India?
4. To what country did Columbus first apply for aid?
5. From what country did he secure aid?
6. What land did Columbus suppose that he had found?
7. What did he call the western islands that he found? Why?
8. What did he call the natives?
9. Why was this continent called "America"?
10. What was proved by Magellan's great voyage?
11. Did Magellan return to Spain?
12. Who explored Mexico? When?
13. What were the natives of that country called? Who was their king?
14. Who discovered the "South Sea"? When? Who gave it the name, Pacific Ocean?
15. Who was Pizarro? What country did he visit?
16. What parts of America were chiefly visited by the Spanish explorers?
17. Name three explorers who visited Florida.
18. What Spaniard made the longest overland journey up to this time within what is now our country? Where did he go?

CHAPTER II

THE VOYAGES AND DISCOVERIES OF THE ENGLISH, FRENCH, AND DUTCH

I. ENGLISH EXPLORATIONS

55. John and Sebastian Cabot. — When Columbus was trying to get aid from Spain, he sent his brother Bartholomew to England to see if Henry VII, the king of that nation, would help him. King Henry sent word to Columbus to come to England. But before Bartholomew got back with this message, his brother Christopher had started from Spain on his voyage of discovery.

Up to that time all the great ocean voyages had been made by the sailors of either Portugal or Spain. King Henry wished England to have some share in the glory and profit of new-world discoveries. So he began looking for skillful sailors whom he might send across the Atlantic.

There lived at this time, at Bristol in England, two natives



EXPLORATIONS OF THE CABOTS

of Venice, highly skilled in sailing. They were father and son, and their names were John and Sebastian Cabot. King



CABOT MEMORIAL TOWER
AT BRISTOL, ENGLAND

Henry employed them to find India by sailing far to the north. They set sail from England in a single ship. In June, 1497, they came in sight of the shore of the Western continent, probably as far north as Labrador or Newfoundland. They thought that they had found the east coast of China. Some writers say that the land first seen by them was Cape Breton Island, near Nova Scotia.

A second voyage was made in 1498 by Sebastian Cabot. He sailed along the coast of our country for a long distance to the south. Some years later he made other voyages to this great western land. It was now known that the country was a continent, and King Henry VIII sent him to seek a northwest passage through it or around it to India. On this voyage he tried to enter what was later known as Hudson Bay. On the two early voyages of the Cabots, England based her claim to the northern and middle part of North America.

56. Sir Francis Drake. — For nearly eighty years after the voyages of the Cabots nothing further was done by England in seeking new lands. Then England's great navigator, Sir Francis Drake, was the first Englishman to sail

around the globe. When a young man, Drake had made voyages along the Guinea coast of Africa, as Columbus had done a hundred years before.

The Netherlands, which we know as Holland, and also as the home of the Dutch, had been under the Spanish yoke for many years. In 1567 this country broke away from Spanish rule; this led to a war in which England helped the Dutch. During the first year of the war, Drake sailed with Sir John Hawkins against the Spaniards in Mexico. In a sea battle off the coast of Mexico, near Vera Cruz, he was defeated by the Spanish and returned to England.



SPANISH TREASURE SHIP

He later attacked other Spanish vessels and destroyed some of them on the coasts of South America. From one vessel he took thirty tons of silver. From a mountain on the Isthmus of Panama he saw the Pacific Ocean and resolved to make a voyage upon it.

57. Drake Visits the Pacific Coast of America. — He left England on this voyage in 1577. He passed through the Straits of Magellan to capture such Spanish vessels as he could find along the west coast of South America. He sailed to the north, along what is now California, and called the country New Albion. It is thought that he entered the Golden Gate to San Francisco Bay. Fearing Spanish war-vessels that lay in wait for him he did not return to England by way of the Straits of Magellan.

58. He starts across the Pacific Ocean. — Drake started from San Francisco Bay to cross the Pacific Ocean. He meant to get home by sailing around the south end of Africa, as Magellan's ship, the *Victory*, had done. His course took him to the Spice Islands, where the ships of Magellan had been nearly sixty years before. Thence he laid his course across the Indian Ocean, around the Cape of Good Hope, and at length reached England in 1580.

59. England becomes the Leading Power. — In 1588 Spain sent against England a large fleet, called the Great Armada. Drake was vice-admiral of the English fleet that was to fight it. The Spanish fleet was defeated and nearly destroyed. This great victory made England the leading sea-power of Europe, and soon led her to plant colonies in America.

Before this breaking of Spanish power upon the sea, England had sent out a number of vessels to explore this continent along the Atlantic coast. Sir Martin Frobisher had tried to find a northwest passage to Asia (1576-1578) but had failed, while Sir Humphrey Gilbert had visited the coast of Newfoundland in 1583 and claimed that country for England.

60. Sir Walter Raleigh; Roanoke Island. — The first attempts to found an English colony in North America were made by Sir Walter Raleigh, who was born in England in 1552. Raleigh obtained from the queen a grant of any country "not actually possessed of any Christian prince, nor inhabited by Christian people," that he might discover in America. This grant, or charter as it was called, was made in 1584.

In that year, Raleigh sent out two vessels under the command of Philip Amidas and Arthur Barlow. In July

they reached the coast of what is now North Carolina and entered the waters of Pamlico Sound. They sailed also into Albemarle Sound and found Roanoke Island, which is in the narrow strait connecting these sounds. There they spent the summer. In the fall they went back to England and told Queen Elizabeth about the beautiful country they had found.

The queen named this land Virginia. She was so pleased with what Raleigh had done that she made him a knight, and so it happens that he is known as Sir Walter Raleigh.

61. First Attempt to found an English Settlement in America. — In the following year, Raleigh tried to found a village on Roanoke Island. He sent seven ships with about two hundred Englishmen, of whom Sir Ralph Lane was to be governor. The vessels were nearly wrecked off the coast of North Carolina, but the island was reached early in the summer. Leaving the settlers there, the ships went back.

These men were not fitted for life in a new and wild country. They would not do the hard work that was needed, nor were they wise enough to make friends of the Indians. Their governor, Lane, could not make them work, and they



SIR WALTER RALEIGH AND HIS SON

were soon suffering from sickness and hunger. Sir Francis Drake happened at that time to be coasting along the shore in search of Spanish ships to plunder. He visited Roanoke Island, and, pitying the starving settlers, took them back to England.

62. Second Attempt.—Raleigh sent out another company in 1587 in charge of John White as governor. These people were workmen and farmers. They meant to settle on the shore of Chesapeake Bay, but landed at Roanoke Island. White soon went to England for more men and supplies. As England was busy in preparing to resist the coming Spanish Armada, White was for some time unable to get either men or ships. Raleigh himself was busy, for he had to help to fight the Armada. He managed, however, to send two vessels with food and tools. These ships never reached the settlement.

Three years after he had left Roanoke Island, White went back, but the people he had left there were gone. The only trace of them was the word "*Croatoan*" carved on a tree. That was the name of a neighboring island. White wished to visit this island, but was not able to do so. The weather was bad, and the captain of his ship would not wait for him. He even threatened to leave White on the deserted island. The settlers were probably either killed by the Indians or died from hardship and hunger. Among the lost were White's daughter, Mrs. Eleanor Dare, and her little child Virginia, the first white child born in America.

These failures to settle Virginia taxed Raleigh's vast fortune. It was too great an undertaking for one man. He sold his charter to a company of merchants, but for many years they did not try to make another settlement.

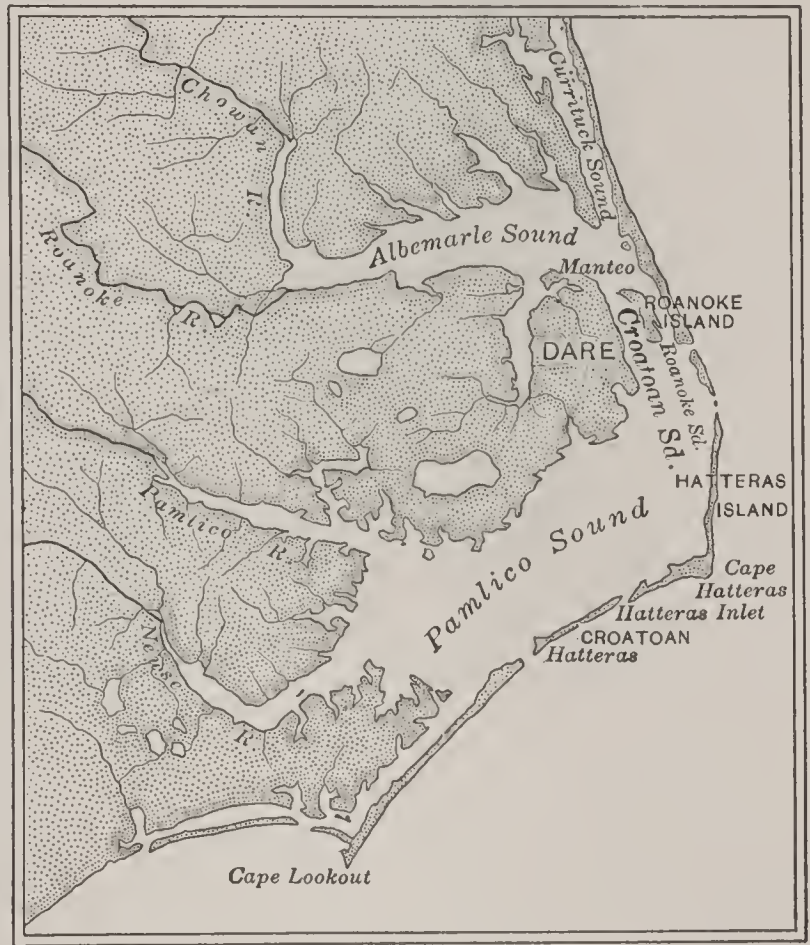
It was said of Raleigh that he "laid the corner-stone of the

American Republic.” Yet for over a hundred years after the discovery of America there were no Englishmen living here.

63. Raleigh in Prison. — In 1595 Raleigh visited Guiana in South America. When Queen Elizabeth died, in 1603, he was arrested as a traitor by order of James I, who was then king. He was sentenced to death and confined in a prison known as the Tower of London.

While there he busied himself in writing a “History of the World.” After being shut up for thirteen years he was set free and was sent to Guiana, in search of gold and other treasure. England was at peace with Spain, and he was

ordered not to trouble the Spanish. One of his captains, however, with two hundred and fifty men in small boats, went up the Orinoco River to a Spanish settlement. They burnt the houses and killed the governor. Raleigh went back to England in 1618, but he carried no gold with him. The king, angry at his failure, caused Raleigh to be sent again to the Tower, and soon afterward he was put to death.



MAP OF RALEIGH'S COLONIES

II. FRENCH EXPLORATIONS

64. French Voyages of Discovery to the New World; John Verrazano. — After the discoveries of the Cabots but before the voyages of Drake, Gilbert, and other English explorers, France began to gain a foothold in the New World. Her explorers confined themselves chiefly to Nova Scotia and the region of the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes.

For years after the Cabots had made their voyages, the French, the Spanish, and the Portuguese had fished for cod-fish off the northeastern coast of North America. Until the sixteenth century was well advanced, however, the French did nothing which would give them a claim to the mainland.

In 1524 Francis I, king of France, sent John Verrazano (Văr-rä-tsä'-no), an Italian navigator, on a voyage of discovery to North America. He reached our coast near the mouth of the Cape Fear River. Thence he followed the coast northward as far as the great island now called Newfoundland. On his way he entered the bay at the mouth of the river since called the Hudson. He also visited Narragansett Bay and one or more islands near it. On his return to France, in the summer of 1524, he wrote a letter to the king, which gave the story of his voyage and described the appearance, mode of life, and customs of the Indians. He said in this story that the lands he had found were "never before seen of any man, either ancient or modern."

65. Jacques Cartier. — In 1534 Cartier (Car-te-a'), a French navigator, sailed from France to see what he could find in the New World. He visited Newfoundland, and sailed into the great gulf since called the St. Lawrence,

thinking that it was the long-sought passage to India. He returned to France the same year, but set out again in May, 1535, with three vessels. This time he went up the St. Lawrence River to the site of the present city of Montreal. Sailing down the river, he anchored his ships for the winter near the site of Quebec. It was a hard winter and many of his men sickened and died. He went



THE FIRST VIEW OF QUEBEC

back to France the next summer, taking some Indians with him. Because of his voyages, France claimed the country visited by him and all the land drained by the St. Lawrence River and its branches. This carried the claims of France to the country of the Great Lakes.

A grant of country in the St. Lawrence region was now made by the king to a Frenchman, named Roberval. Cartier was sent out by Roberval on a third voyage. He left France in May, 1541, with five vessels, and after a stormy voyage reached Quebec. Roberval himself was to follow later with ships and supplies.

Cartier again went up the St. Lawrence River, visited what

is now the island of Montreal, and traveled over the surrounding country for some distance beyond. The weather was terribly cold and his men were worn out. As Roberval did not come, he floated down the river and set sail for France. Off the coast of Newfoundland he met Roberval, who was in command of three ships carrying two hundred settlers.



MAP SHOWING JACQUES CARTIER'S VOYAGES
Thus; 1st Voyage ——— 2d Voyage - - - - 3d Voyage → →

Roberval ordered Cartier to go back to Quebec, but he disobeyed, and on a dark night made his escape and bore away for France. Roberval went on, sailed up the river, and started his settlement, but it was a failure. For more than fifty years no further attempts were made by the French to make settlements in the region they claimed.

66. The Huguenots.—In 1562, French people called Huguenots fled from France, where they had been ill treated, to settle in what later was known as South Carolina. Two

years later, a party of Frenchmen tried to found a colony on the St. Johns River in Florida, and the following year more came to it. But this was Spanish territory, being the country that had been visited and explored by Ponce de Leon, Narvaez, and De Soto. The Spaniard, Menendez (Mē-nen'-deth), marched against this French settlement in Florida, in 1565, and killed its people — men, women, and



ST. AUGUSTINE AS FOUNDED BY MENENDEZ

children. He then built a fort and started a settlement which afterward became St. Augustine, the oldest town in the United States.

67. Samuel Champlain; New France. — The greatest of the French explorers was Samuel Champlain. He did more than any other man toward the settlement by the French of the country once called “New France,” now named Canada. He is known as the “Father of New France.”

In an early voyage to this continent (1599) he visited the West Indies, Mexico, and the Isthmus of Panama. He was

the first man to advise that a canal be cut across this narrow neck of land, which has now been done by our people. It was clear to him that this would give the short water route to India that all Europe wanted. In 1603 he made a voyage to North America and visited the site of Quebec. Five years later he made a settlement there which afterward became one of the strongest French fortifications in our

country. Three years before, a settlement had been made by the French at Port Royal on the west coast of Nova Scotia, but it was not a lasting one.

The Indians, in the region around Quebec, were known as the Algonquins. They were at war with the Iroquois (É-ro-quah') Indians who lived to the south in the region which is now New York State.

68. Champlain attacks the Indians. — In 1609 Champlain set out to at-



SAMUEL CHAMPLAIN

tack the Iroquois. He entered the lake which now bears his name with a war party of Algonquins in canoes. Near the south end of the long and narrow lake he met and defeated a large number of Indians of the Mohawk tribe. They were easily defeated, being frightened at the discharge of the firearms which Champlain and a few of his men carried. They feared the noise and smoke, and could not understand why some of their number fell dead without being struck

by anything so far as they could see. They turned and fled, followed by the Algonquins. Thus the great Iroquois were beaten. They learned later how and by whom the shame of running away had been put upon them; and from that day they hated the French. A few years later, the Iroquois got guns from the Dutch on the Hudson and



THE DEFEAT OF THE IROQUOIS ON LAKE CHAMPLAIN

After the drawing by Champlain, in his "Voyages."

learned how to use them, and then they were ready to fight the French, which they did for many years.

At the time of this small but important battle in the woods near Lake Champlain, England had done but little to make good her claims to North America. She had a few starving settlers in Jamestown, but that was not a strong point of control like Quebec, and it seemed almost certain that the colony would be given up. The French, however, held the St. Lawrence, a gateway to the west, and were seeking control

of the Indian passage-way for trade along Lake Champlain, Lake George, and the Hudson River. The Iroquois Indians prevented the French from coming south along this route and thus saved North America for the English.

III. DUTCH EXPLORATIONS

69. The Dutch in the New World. Henry Hudson. — While Champlain was fighting the Indians on the shores of



HENRY HUDSON

Lake Champlain, Henry Hudson, an Englishman, in the service of the Dutch, explored the river that bears his name.

70. Hudson employed by Holland.— In 1609 Holland was the leading commercial country in Europe, and Amsterdam was the busiest port in the world. She had a large trade with the East Indies by way of the Cape of Good Hope, and her merchants much desired a shorter water route for their ships to that dis-

tant country. They engaged Hudson to make search for one.

Hudson sailed from Amsterdam, April, 1609, in a vessel named the *Half Moon*. On this voyage he skirted the coast of Greenland and went south along the coast of North America as far as what is now the state of Virginia. On his return he entered the waters now known as Delaware Bay. He also visited, at the mouth of a great river, the harbor now known as New York harbor, that Verrazano had entered long before. He sailed up that river, mistaking it for a strait

that would prove to be a northwest passage to India, and went as far as the present city of Albany. On the way he often landed, and his vessel was visited by Indians. He returned to England and sent the story of his voyage to his employers at Amsterdam.

Hudson left England, in her service, on his last voyage, in 1610. He sailed to the northwest and discovered Hudson Bay. He planned to spend the winter there, but his men

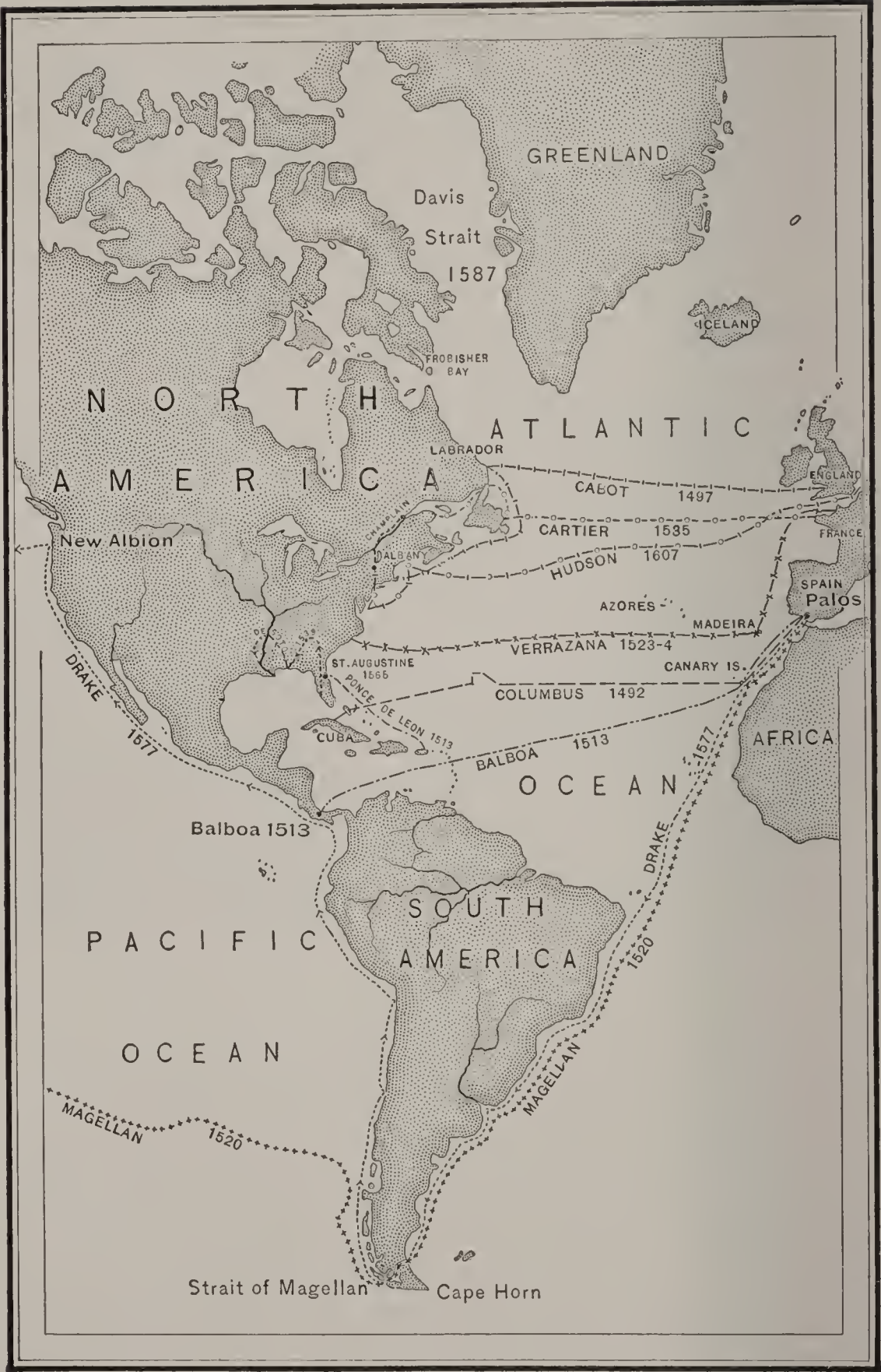


THE "HALF MOON" AT THE HIGHLANDS OF THE HUDSON

After the painting by Moran.

would not obey him. He, with his son and seven of his crew, were set adrift in a small boat, and the rest of the crew sailed for England. The English, learning of this cruel act from one of the men who came back, sent a vessel to search for the missing men. No trace of them was ever found.

71. Dutch Claims. — Because of this voyage of discovery made by Hudson, the Dutch claimed the country each side of the Hudson River, southwesterly to the Delaware. This country they called New Netherland.



MAP OF EARLY VOYAGES

Hudson called the river he had explored the "River of the Mountains." It was afterward named in his honor, Hudson River. The Dutch called the Hudson River the North River, while the Delaware River was known as the South River.

In 1614 a settlement was made by the Dutch on what the Indians called Manhattan Island. This settlement was the beginning of the city of New York. Another settlement, called Fort Orange, was made at a point about one hundred and forty-five miles up the river, which has grown to be the city of Albany. Trading posts were also established along the Delaware River.

In 1621, a new company was formed in Holland called "The Dutch West India Company." This company directed the affairs of New Netherland.

The Dutch did not busy themselves in searching for silver and gold. They did not as a rule attack the Indians and thus make enemies of them. They wished to trade with the Indians and sought furs rather than gold.

SUMMARY

1. England based her claim to a large part of North America on the voyages of John and Sebastian Cabot (1497-1498).
2. England claimed territory on the Pacific coast on account of the voyage of Sir Francis Drake (1577-1580).
3. Sir Francis Drake was the first Englishman to sail around the globe.
4. Sir Walter Raleigh, although his efforts to settle Roanoke Island failed, started interest in the sending of English people to the New World.
5. The defeat of the Spanish Armada (1588) made England a leading world power and led her to make further efforts to make settlements in the New World.
6. The French explored the region of the St. Lawrence. Cartier (1534-1542) and Champlain (1603-1635) were her leading explorers.
7. Henry Hudson, in the employ of the Dutch, sailed along the coast of this continent from Maine to Virginia and explored the Hudson River

(1609). He explored Hudson Bay (1610), being then in service of England.

8. The French settled Quebec (1608), and the Dutch, Manhattan Island (1614).
9. These settlements are connected with the names of Samuel Champlain and Henry Hudson.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. When did England first send an expedition to this country? By whom was this voyage made?
2. What countries of Europe had been active before this in sending out navigators?
3. What part of this continent was visited by the Cabots? What country did they think they had discovered?
4. Who was England's greatest navigator? Why?
5. Why were Spain and England enemies during the latter part of the sixteenth century?
6. Did Drake, in his voyages, have any other object than discovery?
7. What was the Spanish Armada? Against what country did the Armada sail? What became of it?
8. Who was queen of England at this time? What honor did she confer on Drake?
9. By whom were the first attempts made to found an English settlement in this country? When were these attempts made? Why were they unsuccessful? What became of the settlers who landed at Roanoke Island in 1585? What became of those who landed there in 1587?
10. How was Raleigh treated by James I after the death of Queen Elizabeth?
11. Upon what errand and to what country was Raleigh sent by King James? Was he successful in his purpose?
12. How did Raleigh meet his death? Do you think he deserved his fate?
13. What part of North America did the French explore and settle? Who explored a large portion of what is now Canada? Give an account of one of his battles with the Indians on Lake Champlain in 1609.
14. What country of Europe became interested, at this time, in settling the Hudson River valley? What object did the Dutch have in sending settlers to this country? Where did they first settle? Was Holland considered an important country at this time? Why?
15. Who explored the Hudson River for the Dutch?

CHAPTER III

EARLY INHABITANTS OF AMERICA

72. The Mound Builders. — In the Ohio and Mississippi valleys, and in Florida and other parts of the United States, are curious hills and mounds. Their shape and appearance prove that they are not works of nature, but were built by man. They are of different heights, varying from



INDIAN MOUND IN MADISON CO., ILLINOIS

It is 99 feet high and 998 feet long, and is the largest prehistoric mound in the United States.

three to ninety feet. These mounds were evidently used as burial places, or as places of defense. On digging into them, human bones have been found and also pieces of copper. Weapons, tools, pipes made of stone, kettles, jugs and other forms of pottery have been uncovered. The race of people that built them is known as the Mound Builders.

73. The Pueblo Indians. — The people that Friar Mark

and Coronado found in the southwestern part of the United States were different from the common American Indians. They were not so fierce as the barbarous Indians, and did not delight in fighting, but lived by tilling the soil.

These natives lived in houses forming a village or "pueblo." The houses were large and generally stood upon high ground.



PUEBLO VILLAGE, TAOS, N. M.

They were built in stories, each smaller than the one below. There were no doors at the ground level, and entrance was made through small holes or windows reached by ladders. When the ladders were drawn up, these houses could be used as forts in case of attack. Some pueblos are still to be found in Arizona and New Mexico. These natives were known as Pueblo Indians. The descendants of the Pueblo Indians living in those states are to-day known as the Zuñis (Soon'-yees) and Moquis (Mo'-kees). They have long known how to make cloth, and tools and ornaments of copper.

74. The Cliff Dwellers. — Other Indians, much like the Pueblos, but who perhaps lived before their time, were the

Cliff Dwellers. In the southwestern part of the United States are found deep gorges, made during many thousands of years by the wearing away of soil and rocks by rivers. They are called cañons. Some of them are miles in length and hundreds of feet deep. On the steep sides of these cañons, the Cliff Dwellers made their homes. They built small stone dwellings wherever a nook or cranny in the sides of the cliff gave



RUINED CLIFF DWELLINGS, MANCOS CAÑON

room for them. Remains of these houses have been found. Pottery in curious shapes and other household things have been found in them. As a race, the Cliff Dwellers have gone.

75. The Aztecs.—The Aztecs, found by Cortés in Mexico, lived there for centuries before his visit to their country. The Aztecs and the Incas were more nearly civilized than any other natives of the American continent. What we know of the Aztecs we have learned by a study of the ruins of their temples in Mexico and Yucatan, and of the pottery, tools, and weapons that have been found where they once lived.

They made good roads, though they had no beasts of burden, and they also built large stone pipes through which

water flowed for long distances. Whatever they wished to take from place to place was carried by hand. Their women could spin and weave well enough to produce good cloth. They made head-dresses of bright-colored feathers. They also made mats, and were very skillful in the art of making pottery. They had axes, hatchets, and other tools made of copper. They made knives of a very hard kind of volcanic



PAGE OF AN AZTEC BOOK

glass known as obsidian. The weapons which they used were chiefly the javelin and the sword, but bows and arrows were not unknown to them.

76. The Indians of North America.—The natives that the explorers found throughout the region now known as the United States have been called Indians ever since Columbus gave them that name. They were always more savage and warlike than the natives of Mexico or those of the islands of the West Indies. They were tall and well made, and of cinnamon color. They had black, coarse, straight hair, high cheek bones, and black or dark brown eyes. Their feet and hands were small and well shaped. They were not as strong as the white men, but they were more lithe and active.

They were tireless in the pursuit of game and in fighting their enemies. They suffered heat, cold, hunger and even torture without complaint. They remembered kindnesses, but never forgave or forgot an insult or an injury.

77. Mode of Living.—Some of these Indians were savages. They had no fixed home, but traveled from place to place and lived by hunting and fishing. Other tribes, not so savage, had local homes. These Indians hunted, fished, and raised small crops of grain and vegetables. They grew maize, tobacco, squashes, and beans. The Indian women did the hard work, while the men spent their time in fighting their enemies, or in hunting and fishing.

The Indians lived in wigwams. These were made by sticking poles in the ground in a circle, bending and binding their tops together, and covering this framework with skins and hides. A hole was left at the top, through which smoke might go. At the bottom of the wigwam, the covering was left unfastened so that it could serve as an entrance.

The Iroquois Indians, living chiefly in what is now New York State, made a shelter that they called the “long-house,” one of which was large enough for thirty to fifty families. The framework of these houses was made of poles and was



PALISADED INDIAN VILLAGE

Algonkin village, Pomeiock, on Albemarle Sound, in 1585.

covered with bark. Inside, each house was divided into spaces, over each of which was a hole in the roof, through which smoke might pass out from the fires by which the food was cooked. Generally, the wigwams or houses were in groups or villages.

78. Government. — A group of Indians who were related to some common ancestor formed a clan. A chief or sachem

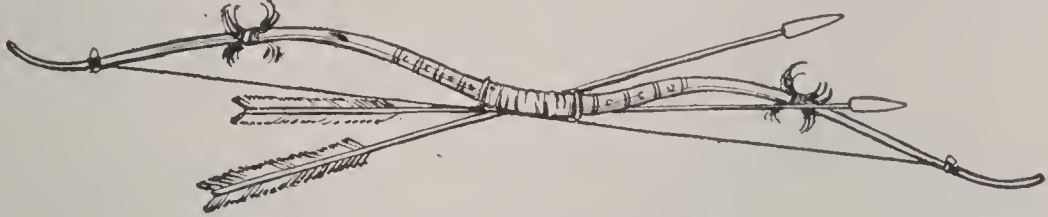


IROQUOIS LONG HOUSE

was chosen for each clan. The women as well as the men had a vote in this choice. A number of clans formed a tribe. Each tribe was ruled by a council of sachems. Each clan was named for some bird or animal, such as eagle, turtle, buffalo, or wolf. A rude picture or image of this bird or animal was called the totem of the clan. This animal was thought to be sacred and might not be killed.

79. Language. — Indians of the same clan spoke the same language, but among the members of a tribe there were differences in speech. There was no written language, but ideas were sometimes expressed in picture-writing. A picture of an arrow, for instance, would mean a warrior. The number of arrows told of the number of warriors. The way in which they pointed showed where a war party had gone. The meaning of these pictures, made upon birch bark or dried skin, was readily understood by the Indians.

80. Religious Belief.—The Indians did not worship idols as the Aztecs of Mexico did. They believed that after death the spirit of every brave would live forever in the Happy Hunting Ground. They believed in a Great Spirit, or Manitou, as they called him. They thought that the tempest,

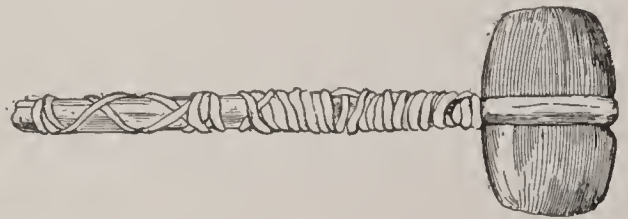


INDIAN BOW AND ARROWS

the thunder, and the lightning were signs of his wrath. To appease his anger they made offerings of tobacco, throwing it to the winds or upon the raging waters. When sick, they called the medicine man. They thought that he had power to drive out the evil spirits that caused sickness.

Before going to battle they held a war dance, in which, while circling around, they boasted of their bravery, and in wild songs told of past victories and asked the aid of the Great Spirit for further success.

They broiled meat, holding it over the fire on sharpened sticks. A mixture of corn and beans, boiled in stone kettles, made them a food, called succotash. They also ate fish which were caught either by spearing or by using fish-hooks made of bone. In winter they wore the skins of deer and the fur of other animals, and moccasins of deerskin. The bow and



A TOMAHAWK

arrow and the stone hatchet served them as weapons. The arrowhead was made of flint and bound to the arrowshaft by thongs. After the coming of the white man they quickly learned the use of firearms and knives.

81. Indian Warfare. — In warfare the Indians were cruel and treacherous. They never fought in the open, but skulked behind trees, sometimes lying in hiding for days, in order to strike an unexpected blow. They traveled swiftly and silently, to surprise the enemy by fierce and sudden attack. They took the scalps of those killed, and the bravery of a



INDIAN AND CANOE

warrior was measured by the number of scalps taken. Sometimes the Indians put their prisoners to frightful torture, burning them at the stake with slow fire. He was a great warrior who, in the agony of torture, uttered no groan or cry. At other times the prisoner ran for his life between two long lines of warriors, who struck at him with clubs and tomahawks as he passed. If he succeeded in getting through, his life was spared. Sometimes a prisoner who showed great bravery was adopted into the tribe of his captors.

82. Industries. — The squaws wove baskets and mats

and baked clay into rude forms of pottery; but perhaps the most useful articles made by the Indians were the birch-bark canoe and the snowshoe. In his canoe, the Indian traveled great distances. It was so light that it could be easily carried overland, from one river or lake to another.

The money of the Indians was made of colored pieces of clam shell. These when polished and pierced were strung



A PIECE OF WAMPUM

like beads or woven into belts. When a treaty was made, belts of wampum, as this money was called, were exchanged in remembrance of the event.

The Indians taught many of their rude arts to the whites. They showed them that to raise maize or Indian corn in the forest, the trees must be killed, in order that their leaves should not keep out the sunlight, so needful to the growing plants. This was done by cutting off the bark in a circle, around the trunk. This was more easily done by the Indian than cutting the trees down with his stone axe. They taught the white man how to use snowshoes, and how to paddle the bark canoes without upsetting. They showed him how to follow trails, and how to learn the lessons that nature teaches in the wilderness.

83. Tribes. — The most powerful tribes east of the Mississippi River were those of the Iroquois Confederacy. These masterful Indians conquered their enemies and prevented the French, in the St. Lawrence River region, from pushing south into the country which now forms the state of New York.

The Algonquins, chiefly, held all the other territory from what is now Tennessee far into Canada. South of this region, from the Mississippi to the Atlantic coast, were the Mobilians or Maskokis. The Dakotas lived in the country west of the Mississippi River. These great nations were divided into numerous tribes. The Indians figured largely in the later history of this country, helping at different times both French and English, as those people fought each other.

84. Present Indian Reservations.—It is said that the Indian population east of the Mississippi River was once 230,000. These Indians were driven west by the line of



AN INDIAN CHIEF

white settlements, until most of them are now living on reservations, the name given for lands set apart for them. There are a number of reservations in the former Indian Territory, now a part of Oklahoma, upon which live the Cherokees, Chickasaws, Choctaws, Creeks, and Seminoles;—these Indians having been removed from the Carolinas, Georgia, and Florida. In 1886, the Apaches were taken from their reservations in Arizona and New Mexico

and sent to the Indian Territory.

The Sioux, or Dakotas, the largest and strongest tribe of Indians north of Mexico, are now living on reservations in South Dakota west of the Missouri River. These Indians once lived in the region around the west end of Lake Superior

and later in the country stretching from the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains.

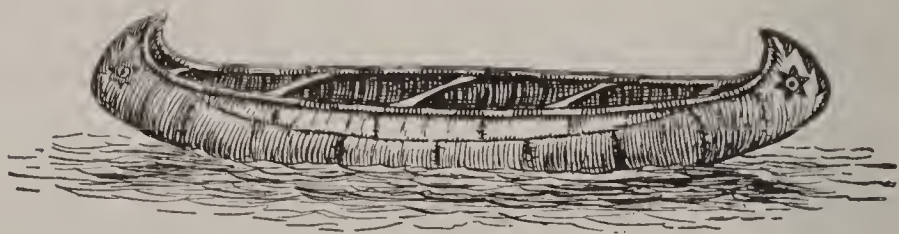
The descendants of the Indians formerly living in New York state are now scattered on reservations through the state. Four of these are near Lake Erie, one in the center of the state and another on the St. Lawrence River. There is also a small reservation held by the Shinnecock Indians on the east end of Long Island.

SUMMARY

1. Large mounds are found in various places in the United States. The people who built them are known as Mound Builders.
2. Some of the mounds were undoubtedly burial places for the dead. Others may have been used as forts or to inclose villages.
3. They are found largely in the Ohio and Mississippi valleys, and are of various sizes and shapes.
4. The Pueblo Indians were skillful in making their peculiar houses. They were more civilized than the other Indians and tilled the soil. Their descendants are the Moquis and Zuñis of the present day.
5. Somewhat like the Pueblos were the Cliff Dwellers, whose peculiar dwellings were on the steep sides of gorges and river cañons. They have passed away as a race.
6. The most highly civilized natives of the New World were the Incas of Peru and the Aztecs of Mexico.
7. The Aztecs built temples and worshiped idols. They made good roads and built long pipe-lines for water. They made cloth and were skillful in making pottery, tools, and weapons.
8. They were conquered by the Spaniards, under Cortés, early in the sixteenth century.
9. The North American Indians lived mainly by hunting and fishing, although they raised Indian corn and some vegetables.
10. The Indians were good friends, but bitter enemies. They were cruel to captives, scalped their enemies, and tortured prisoners.
11. Their spoken language consisted of various dialects. They had no written language.
12. They had no beasts of burden or domestic animals except the dog, until the horse was introduced by the Spanish. The hard labor was done by the squaws.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. Who were the Mound Builders? Why were they so called?
2. Where were these mounds found? Of what shapes were they? What has been discovered in them?
3. In what part of the country were Pueblo Indians found? What kind of houses did they build? What crops did they grow? Are there any Pueblo tribes now living?
4. Where did the Cliff Dwellers build their houses? Why did they choose such places for dwellings?
5. Where did the Aztecs live? Who was their king when Cortés conquered Mexico? What weapons did they use? Of what materials were their weapons made? Were they successful as builders? What did they build? Besides their weapons, what articles did they make?
6. At the time of the coming of the Spaniards to the mainland, what were the natives of the present United States called? Why were they so called? What was their appearance? Can you tell how a wigwam was made and of what materials? Describe the "long-house" of the Iroquois Indians.
7. What was wampum? What was its use? Why was the canoe useful to the Indians in their summer travel?
8. Upon what did the Indians depend for food? What crops did they raise?
9. What was the method of Indian warfare? How did they sometimes treat their captives?
10. Name a few of the leading tribes of Indians in this country. Where did they live?
11. Name some of the present Indian reservations.



BIRCH-BARK CANOE

CHAPTER IV

HOW THE SPANISH AND THE FRENCH PEOPLED AMERICA

I. HOW THE SPANISH PEOPLED THEIR LANDS

85. The first Settlers were Spanish. — The Spaniards had a long start in making settlements in America. About fifty years before Jamestown was settled there were Spaniards living at St. Augustine in Florida, and long before that they were living in the city of Mexico. The Spanish were at Santa Fé and along the Rio Grande years before the Jamestown settlers landed. Before the people of any other nation came to America to stay, there were Spanish in the West Indies, Mexico, and parts of Central and South America.

86. Broad Claims of Spain. — Portugal and Spain were the earliest exploring nations. When search for lands in the western world began, they agreed to divide between themselves any that they might find. They fixed upon a line which ran north and south upon the Atlantic Ocean. All unknown lands east of it were to go to Portugal and all west to Spain. They gave no thought to what other nations might do in finding new lands, or to what they might claim.

North America with its islands lay west of the line, and for that reason, and also because Spanish explorers found it, Spain claimed the whole of North America as her own.

87. Spain's Claim Disputed. — England was not willing to agree to Spain's claim, neither was France nor Holland.

Each of these nations sent men to hunt for a passage to India through or around North America. Each found parts of the continent, and each claimed that which its men had found.

While the Spanish were in the West Indies, Mexico, Florida, and the region of the lower Mississippi, and were pushing their way in Central and South America, Portugal was also making explorations. For a long time her efforts were directed toward reaching India by sailing around Africa. This was finally accomplished by Vasco da Gama.

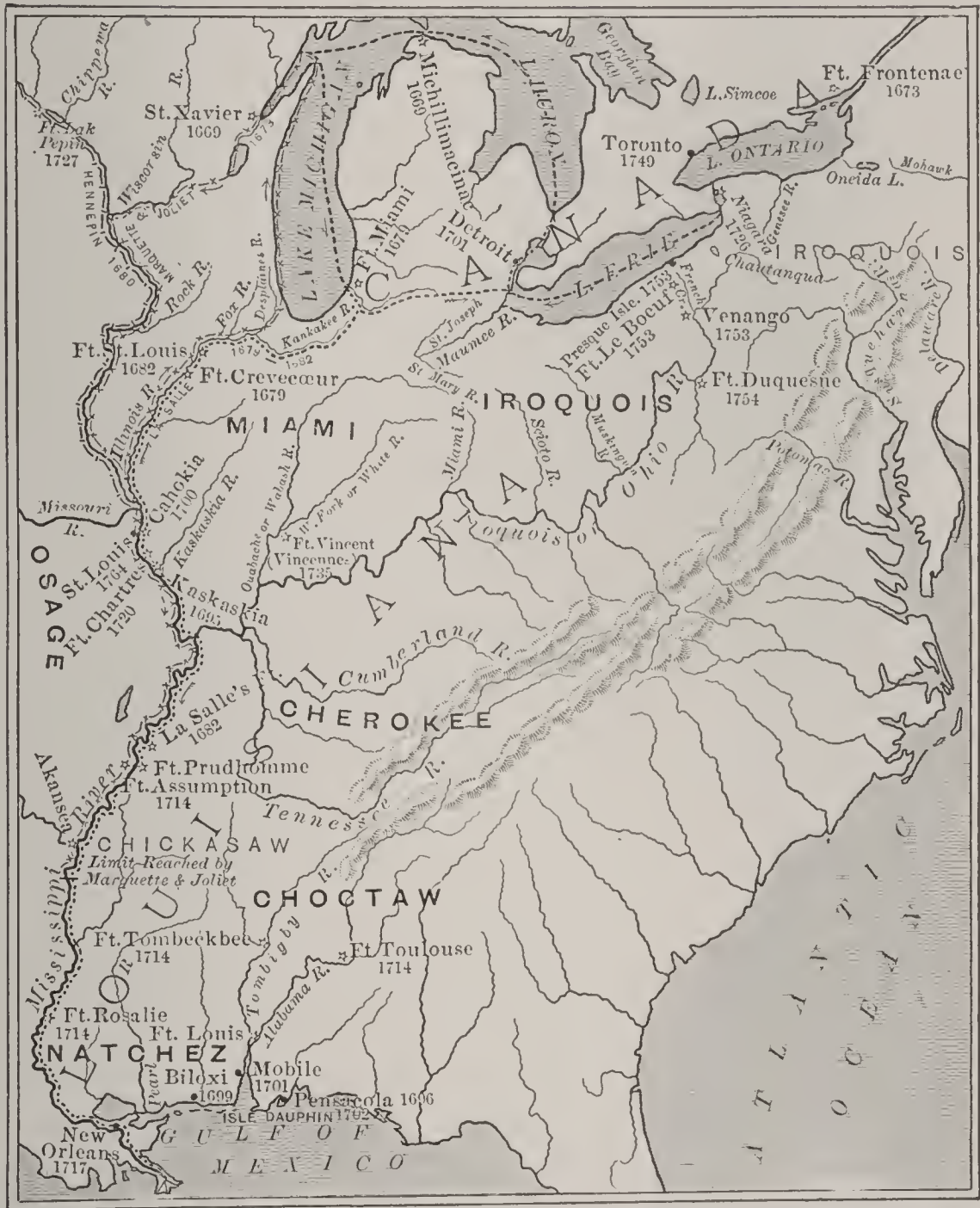
When Portugal employed Vespuccius to search out new lands, she gained the country that we now call Brazil. This lay east of the line fixed as the boundary between lands to be claimed by Spain or Portugal. Brazil was thus a Portuguese colony and so remained for years. It afterward became an empire, but is now a republic.

II. HOW THE FRENCH PEOPLED AMERICA

88. What France claimed at First. — Verrazano and Cartier discovered Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and the St. Lawrence River. Hence, France claimed that country and all land drained by the St. Lawrence River and its branches. "However long and wide it may be," said the king of France, "that land is ours. Frenchmen shall trade and live there; French towns shall grow up there, and the country shall be called New France." Besides the St. Lawrence region, the French claimed what is now New England and the state of New York, but the Indians and the English kept them from living there.

89. Why France did not people the Country Sooner. — For more than fifty years after claiming the country, France did little in making settlements in New France because there

were wars at home among her own people. But many Frenchmen sailed along the coast for fish, while others went into the



MAP TO ILLUSTRATE FRENCH EXPLORATIONS

forest for furs. Quebec was for many years an outpost from which French priests went forth to preach to the Indians, and French trappers and traders to get furs. Champlain

himself made long trips into the wilderness, going as far west as Lake Huron.

90. The Fur Business. — In those days the northern part of North America was the richest fur country in the world. The early French visitors to America were not farmers looking for homes. They came for furs, and wasted no time in seeking for gold. The Spanish and English might search for it, but the gold they could get for furs was enough for the French. The people of Europe were eager to buy at high

prices all the American furs that might be brought to them. All the colonists in North America, except the Spaniards, depended more or less on the sale of furs for a living; but the French in Canada and the Dutch just south of them made fur-getting their main business.



FRENCH FUR-TRADER

91. The French made Friends of the Indians. — The French claimed the country that their explorers had found, and that their trappers and missionaries were traveling over, but, unlike the English and Spanish, they did not for many years send parties of emigrants to found colonies. Such settlements as they had made were trading posts, each with a

rude fort, where Indians brought furs and listened to the teachings of the good priests. The English did not like the Indians, and did not try to make friends of them. They wanted open fields for farming, and cut down the forest trees to make them, and this made the red man angry because it spoiled his hunting grounds. For these reasons, as a rule, the Indians hated the English. But the French did not care for farming

and depended on the forest for furs. So they did no harm to the hunting grounds and thus kept the good will of the natives.

The French trappers lived with the Indians and not a few married Indian women. The priests treated the red men as fellow-beings and strove earnestly to bring them into the church. No braver or more devoted men ever lived than the earnest priests of the Society of Jesus, and those of other orders, who toiled and died among the northern Indians in the early days of the French in America.

92. The Algonquins and the Iroquois. — The Indians of the St. Lawrence River region were known as Algonquins and were friendly to the French. To the south dwelt the Iroquois, in five tribes known as the Five Nations. They lived along the Mohawk Valley and in the northern part of what is now Pennsylvania and Ohio. They were the most powerful tribe of Indians in North America.

If the French could have made friends with them they might have held Manhattan and the Hudson River, and the rest of what later became the state of New York might have been French instead of Dutch. The French, through the friendship of the Iroquois, might also have prevented the settlement by the English of the New England coast region.

The Dutch, however, soon settled the Hudson River region and became friendly with the Iroquois. By teaching them the use of guns, the Dutch made them so strong that the



A JESUIT FATHER

French could never break through their country as Champlain had hoped to do.

93. Nicolet.—In 1634, Jean Nicolet (Nee-ko-lay), a French fur-trader of Quebec, went west to Lake Michigan and into what is now Wisconsin. When he came back, he said he had seen a river that flowed south and west. He reasoned that it must flow down a western slope to an ocean, as the St. Lawrence and other rivers flowed easterly to the Atlantic.

The French had never given up their purpose of finding a way across America to India. Many of them believed that up the St. Lawrence, through the Great Lakes, and thence westward by the river which Nicolet had found, was the long-sought way.

94. Marquette and Joliet.—More than thirty years after Nicolet told his story a mission was founded by Father Marquette on the strait between Lake Superior and Lake Huron. Not far from where Lake Huron and Lake Michigan are joined by the Strait of Mackinac, he founded another. These missions were then the farthest outposts of the French. As yet, they had not moved south to explore the country.

Nicolet's tale had not been forgotten in Quebec. In 1673, Frontenac, the governor of New France, sent a fur-trader, named Louis Joliet (Zhōl'-yay), to find the river, and Marquette was asked to join in the search. Marquette and Joliet went westward to the Wisconsin River, as Nicolet had done. In their canoes the party paddled down the river until it led them to a very large stream flowing south. They let the current carry them, taking note of the country, which was mostly prairie.

They came to a place where a mighty stream, the Missouri River, came from the west, carrying so much soil that its water was muddy. They passed many places where streams came

in to swell the current, some on one side and some on the other. From the east came a great river, the one which we know as the Ohio. Beyond that, they found the Arkansas River, flowing from the west, and they went a little farther.



DISCOVERY OF THE MISSISSIPPI BY MARQUETTE, 1673

They were on the Mississippi, one of the great rivers of the world. Most important of all, they had found the greatest and richest region of all the world lying ready to be claimed by France, through their being first to see it.

95. La Salle. — In 1673, Frontenac built Fort Frontenac on the northeastern shore of Lake Ontario. After the fort was finished he put a man named La Salle in command of it. Like most French posts, this was easily reached by Indians with their packs of furs. La Salle, who could speak several Indian languages, learned much of value from these Indians

and went to France to get the king's help for a long trip into the middle of the continent. He came back to Fort Frontenac in 1678.

96. The First and Only Voyage of the "Griffin." — The following year, La Salle sailed in a small boat called the *Griffin*



LA SALLE

the length of Lake Erie and through the narrow waterway where Detroit now stands. He passed north, into Lake Huron, through the Strait of Mackinac into Lake Michigan, and across that to Green Bay. He was now at the point on the western shore of Lake Michigan where Nicolet had visited the Indians thirty-five years before, and from which Marquette and Joliet had set out when they went to find the Mississippi. From Green Bay the *Griffin* was sent back to the eastern end of Lake Erie with a cargo of

furs bought from the Indians. She was to deliver the furs and return to Green Bay with supplies.

Instead of following the course taken by Nicolet and Joliet, La Salle and his party took canoes at Green Bay and paddled to the southern shores of Lake Michigan. They went westward around the south end of this lake and, reaching a branch of the Illinois River, followed it until it led them into that stream.

97. Fort Crèvecoeur. — At a point a little more than a hundred miles from Lake Michigan they came to a broad widening of the Illinois River, and built a fort there which they called Fort Crèvecoeur. They were far from home and knew not when or how they should return.

They waited here for news of the return of the *Griffin*, but none came. After a while, La Salle and a few men set out



BUILDING THE "GRIFFIN"

to look for her. They struck across the country to Lake Michigan and went east by short cut to the west end of Lake Erie. From this point they paddled in canoes the length of the Lake, but could learn nothing of the *Griffin*. She was lost; but how, when or where, has never been known.

With a party of Frenchmen and Indians, La Salle now returned to Fort Crèvecoeur, but found it in ruins. The vengeful Iroquois had traveled hundreds of miles to reach the fort, had destroyed it, and killed or driven away the

men. When La Salle reached Green Bay he found there those who had escaped.

98. La Salle reaches the Mouth of the Mississippi River. — In 1682, La Salle was again searching for the Mississippi Valley. This time he reached the great stream and followed it beyond where Marquette and Joliet had gone, to the salt water of the Gulf of Mexico.

Regardless of the claims of the Spanish to this country, La Salle planted a cross, nailed to it the arms of France and declared that all the land drained by the Mississippi and its branches, east and west, belonged to France. To the great domain he gave the name of his king, Louis XIV, and called it Louisiana. France now claimed the greatest and most valuable part of North America.

The French were not content to search out the course of the Mississippi to the south. In 1680, Father Hennepin was sent by La Salle to follow its windings northward to its source. He went up as far as boats could go, stopping only when he reached a great waterfall which he named the Falls of St. Anthony. In later years, the large cities of Minneapolis and St. Paul have grown up there, and the water power of the falls is now used for making many thousand barrels of flour every day.

99. Death of La Salle. — La Salle went to France and told the king what he had done. In 1684 the king directed him to make settlements along the coast of the Gulf of Mexico. He sailed with four ships and about three hundred men. Instead of going to the mouth of the river, the company landed four hundred miles to the west, on the coast of what is now the State of Texas, where they built a fort. A vessel was wrecked, and the jealous and treacherous captain of the ship sailed away with two others. The Indians began to

murder men of the party, and soon there were only about fifty left.

Anxious to reach the Mississippi and the Illinois country, La Salle started overland in 1687, with some of his men who, blaming him for their troubles, were heartsick and sullen. On the way one of them murdered him. Thus died



LA SALLE AT THE MOUTH OF THE MISSISSIPPI, 1682

the great French hero who had set France in a fair way to become the greatest nation in the world.

100. King William's War. — From causes that did not concern America, there was war in Europe between England and France, and the king of France thought it a good time to make trouble for the English in America. He ordered Frontenac, governor of Canada, to march against the New York country, which had long since passed from the Dutch

to the English and was now an English province. He meant to take it and make it French, thus separating the eastern English colonies from those south of New York. It was a good scheme, if it could be carried out. It would have given the French the Hudson River and the Mohawk Valley as a route to the west. The English had many more men in America than the French, but the French could call many Indians to the field to help them.

Frontenac prepared to carry out his king's plan. But the Iroquois Indians saw their chance and attacked Canada, and this kept Frontenac busy at home. Unable to send an army against New York, he began to send small parties of French and Algonquins to attack outlying English settlements. The savages were allowed to fight in their own way, and they murdered women and children whenever they could. The people of Schenectady, in New York, and many towns in New England, were victims of savage cruelty.

The people of New York and New England fought the Canadians and Indians with good effect, but the war closed in Europe and in America in 1697, leaving things in America about as they had been before.

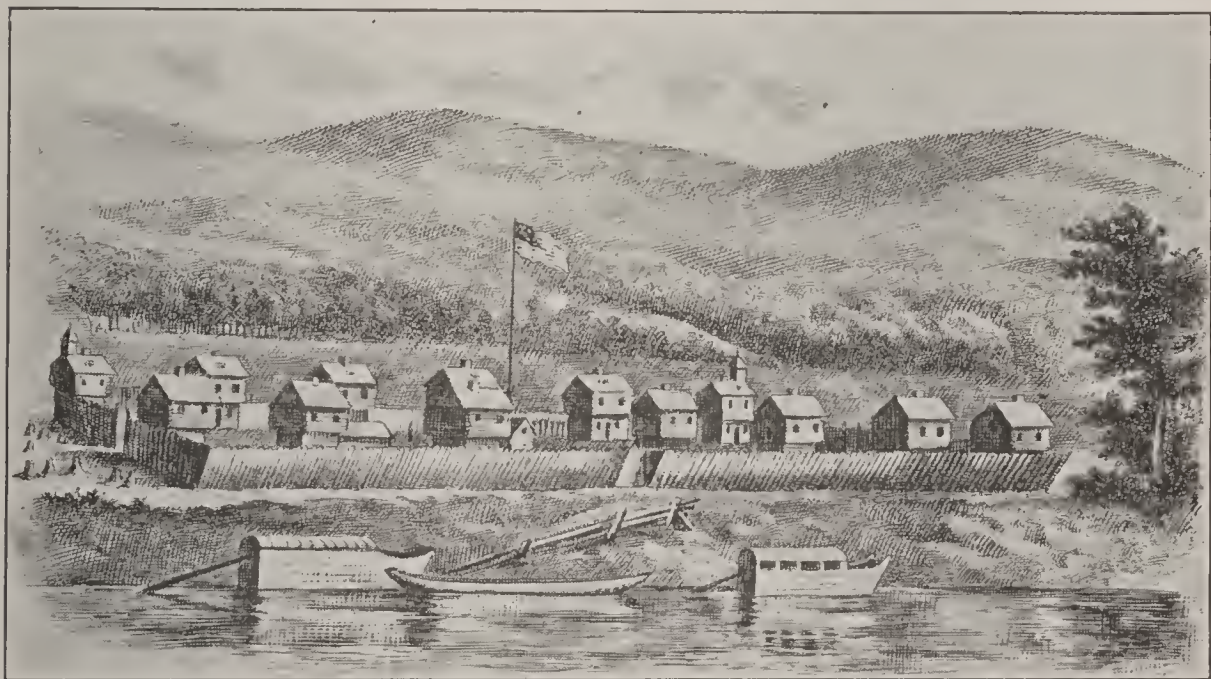
101. The French on the Gulf of Mexico. — In 1698 a man named Iberville sailed from France with two ships, to plant colonies on the Gulf of Mexico near the mouth of the Mississippi River, as La Salle had tried to do. He spent several months searching the coast for good places, and at last made a settlement at Biloxi.

Thus, at the beginning of the eighteenth century, the French, by settlements on the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes and on the Gulf of Mexico, claimed the land that lay between.

The Spanish had only Florida and Mexico by settlement,

and some missions in what is now known as California. The English held by settlement the ocean slope as far as the Alleghany Mountains, which rose as a wall to keep them out of the great inside valley.

France had the best portion. She controlled both the northern outlet—the St. Lawrence—and the southern—the Mississippi. There were no railroads in those days,



A FRENCH FORT ON THE OHIO RIVER

nor even wagon roads worth mentioning. Travel was by water, and the French held the two great waterways of the continent. All the trade between North America and Europe, except that of the Atlantic slope, was in their hands. New France bade fair to become worth a hundred times old France.

102. The French Chain of Forts.—In 1701, the French made a settlement on the strait that connects Lake Erie with Lake Huron which has since grown to be Detroit, and another on the Gulf of Mexico, more than a thousand miles away, which has grown to be the city of Mobile. They began

carrying out a plan to plant settlements and forts in a chain from Quebec to the Gulf of Mexico. Of course, these were to be along the waterways, since there were no other routes of travel in a country so new. While there was present peace with England, the French had no doubt that they would yet have to fight for their ground, and they were preparing for the trial of arms.

103. Queen Anne's War. — In Europe, King Louis XIV of France was plotting against England and Holland, and in 1702 war broke out again. King William III of England was dead, and in his place reigned Queen Anne. Again the Indians were set on by the French of Canada to ravage English settlements in New England. Some towns in Massachusetts and Maine were attacked, and women and children were killed. Spain helped France in the contest. A fleet of French and Spanish ships attacked Charleston, South Carolina, but were driven off. The war lasted until 1713, and when peace was made, France gave to England Nova Scotia, the Hudson Bay region, and the Newfoundland fisheries. This war is known as Queen Anne's War.

For more than thirty years after Queen Anne's War there was peace between the English and the French in America. During this time, the French were getting ready for another war, for they knew that in time, there would be one. They built a strong fortress on Cape Breton Island and called it Louisburg, in honor of their king. It was thought to be one of the strongest forts in the world and was important in naval warfare because of its position at the entrance to the Gulf of St. Lawrence. It could also be used as a base of operations in any expeditions made by land against the English who at that time held the surrounding country.

SUMMARY

1. France founded her claims to the St. Lawrence River region on the voyages of Verrazano and Cartier.
2. Champlain first got foothold in the New World for France. He founded Quebec, 1608.
3. The French engaged in the fur trade. Excepting the Iroquois, they remained friendly with the Indians.
4. Champlain defeated the Iroquois Indians, thus making them the enemies of the French. This prevented the French from making settlements to the south along the Hudson River.
5. The French made explorations to the west along the country of the Ottawa River and the Great Lakes.
6. Jean Nicolet traveled as far west as Lake Michigan and Wisconsin, 1634.
7. Missions were founded on the Strait of Mackinac and Falls of St. Mary by Father Marquette.
8. Father Marquette and Louis Joliet made an expedition down the Mississippi River, 1673.
9. La Salle finally reached the Gulf of Mexico, 1682.
10. French settlements were made on the Gulf of Mexico.
11. French settlements and forts were built along the Great Lakes.
12. Troubles between France and England led in this country to King William's War and Queen Anne's War.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. What part of this country did France claim, owing to the voyages of Verrazano and Cartier?
2. Why did not France sooner settle the regions which she had discovered in the New World?
3. Who made the settlement at Quebec? When?
4. What was the chief business of the early French settlers?
5. Why were the Indians friendly with the French?
6. What tribes of Indians were the enemies of the French? Why?
7. Give an account of the journey of Jean Nicolet. Of Father Marquette and Louis Joliet.
8. What other French explorer went as far south as the Gulf of Mexico?
9. Why was his attempt to found colonies near the mouth of the Mississippi unsuccessful?
10. Tell about King William's War.
11. After the voyages of Marquette and La Salle, what portions of this country did the French claim?
12. Give an account of Queen Anne's War.

CHAPTER V

HOW THE ENGLISH PEOPLED AMERICA

104. Jamestown. — Two companies of wealthy English merchants got leave from King James I to start settlements in America. One was called the Plymouth Company and the other the London Company.

The lands to be settled by the Plymouth Company lay along the coast from near the mouth of the Hudson River to the Bay of Fundy. The London Company was to make settlements between the mouth of the Potomac and that of the Cape Fear River.

In December, 1606, the London Company sent three ships and one hundred and five men, under command of Captain Newport, to make a settlement at Roanoke Island. One of this company was Captain John Smith, who had seen much of the Old World and whose coming to the New World was a search for adventure. He had been an active soldier and had passed through many trials and dangers.

The ships entered Chesapeake Bay and passed up a broad river, which the company named the James, in honor of the king. Giving up their purpose of settling on Roanoke Island, a landing was made about fifty miles from the mouth of the river, and a settlement was begun in May, 1607, which was called Jamestown. It was the first long-lived English settlement in America.

A few days after landing, Newport and Smith went up the

river to visit Powhatan, the chief of the Indians, living near its headwaters.

105. Sickness and Death. — In June, Captain Newport went to England to bring more men and supplies. Before the summer was over one half of the men of Jamestown had sickened and died. The governor, Wingfield, stole the food of his half-fed companions and was getting ready to run away when his evil conduct was found out.

106. Smith has an Adventure. — The colonists were told when they left England that they must search for a passage through America to India.

It seemed that a way might be found by following the rivers that flowed into the James from the west. They thought that beyond their sources they might find the beginnings of some that flowed into the sea on the western coast of America. So they sent Smith to find them; and with two white men and two Indians, he started in a canoe up the Chickahominy River, which ended in a swamp.

Taking an Indian for a guide and leaving the rest of his party with the canoe, he went on to search for a river flowing west. He had gone but a short way when the Indians attacked him. He killed three of them, but was at last overpowered and taken prisoner. The Indians led him from



CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH

From an engraving in his "Description of New England."

village to village as a show for the women and children, and at last brought him to Powhatan. It was several days before the Indians decided to put Smith to death.

When the time came to take his life, Smith was bound and placed on his back, with his head on a block of stone. A



POCAHONTAS SAVING JOHN SMITH'S LIFE

From "A General History of Virginia," by Captain John Smith.
London, 1626.

brawny Indian came forward with a stone battle-ax and raised the weapon for the blow that was to dash out the white man's brains. At that instant, Pocahontas, the chief's daughter, rushed forward and throwing herself before the battle-ax, demanded that Smith's life be spared. Such was Powhatan's love for his child, that he granted her wish.

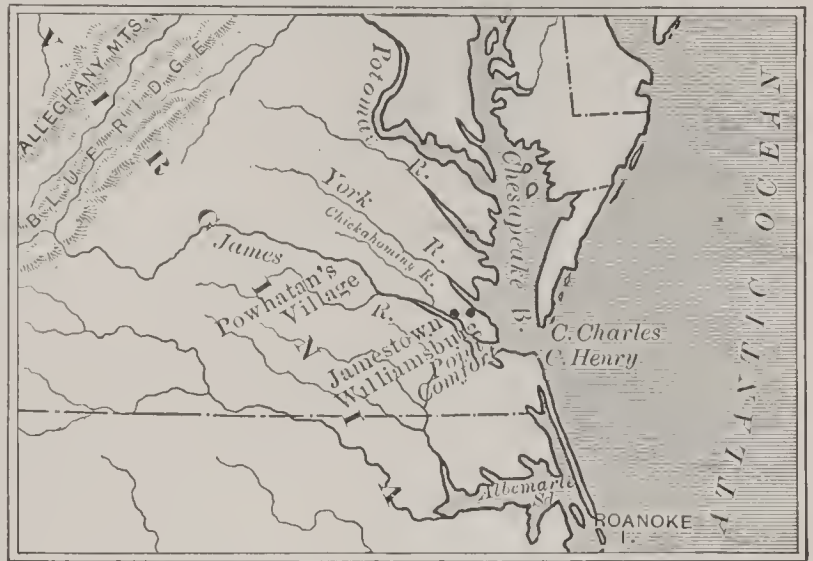
A few weeks later the Indians let Smith go, and he went back to Jamestown. Soon after this Smith was made governor of the colony.

107. More Settlers come to Jamestown.—Newport brought with him from England about one hundred and twenty more men who, like those who had come at first, would not do the rough work of making homes for themselves in the wilderness, but spent their time in a foolish hunt for gold. Smith then made a rule that those who would not labor should not eat. He made

every man toil a certain number of hours each day. When food ran short, he got more from the Indians, and he was the only man in the settlement who could. More people for the colony

were brought over by Captain Newport during this year. These were no better than those who had come before, except that among them were a few women.

A new grant of land was made to the London Company in 1609. Under this grant, settlements could be made for two hundred miles north, and the same distance south, of the mouth of Chesapeake Bay. This grant gave to the company all the land west of the coast from sea to sea. A larger number of settlers were sent from England during this year, and Lord de la Warr (Delaware) was appointed governor of Virginia.



VIRGINIA IN EARLY DAYS

108. "The Starving Time." — Before Lord Delaware arrived Smith, who had been hurt by an explosion of gunpowder, returned to England. He never came back to Jamestown, but in 1614 explored the New England coast. It was bad for the colony that he was away. Trouble with the Indians began, and corn and provisions could not be had. The following winter (1609–1610) is known as "the starving time." When Smith left Jamestown, there were nearly five hundred people in the settlement. By the summer of the next year, sickness and hunger had brought this number down to about sixty. The few still alive had set out to leave the settlement and were on their way down the river, when they met the ships of Lord Delaware with men and supplies. They went back to Jamestown, and the settlement was saved.

109. Governor Dale. — Delaware, who followed Smith as governor of Virginia, remained in Jamestown a few months, then went back to England in ill health, never to return. He was succeeded in 1611 by Governor Dale, who understood what to do. He knew that some of the settlers were of the worst class of people. Those that came willingly and could pay their way did not come to stay but to hunt for gold, and they expected to get it quickly and go back. Not finding it, they had no heart for other work and spent their time in idleness. Of another class were those called indentured servants, who could not pay their passage to this country and so bound themselves, in writing, called an indenture, to work it out after getting over. They had no interest in the work and were idle. Dale made them work, and punished those who would not.

Not only did Dale punish the idlers, but by changing the rules he also helped the few who would work. Up to this

time, all the food had been kept in a common storehouse, from which it was given out to all alike. The lazy were given just as much as those who worked, which caused them to shirk and discouraged the workers. To remedy this, each settler was given a farm, and he could have only what he raised. Men were allowed to own as much as a hundred acres of land, if they were able to buy it. Each man paid a small amount of corn to the company as a tax.

110. Tobacco. — In 1612, John Rolfe began to raise tobacco, which grew wild in Virginia and which was coming into use in Europe. He was successful in growing it and in selling it in England at good prices. Thus began the tobacco trade of the world.

111. Argall kidnaps Pocahontas. — In spite of all that the better class could do, the colony came to want. Food was scarce, and the Indians were angry and threatening because they had been abused by the unruly whites in the settlement. As the whites stole from them, they began stealing from the whites, and soon carried off some farming tools.



POCAHONTAS

Samuel Argall, who became governor of the colony, went up the river with his vessel to ask Powhatan for corn and to demand that the tools be returned, which was refused. Knowing the old man's love for his daughter, Argall formed a plan to kidnap her. He believed that Powhatan would yield for the sake of getting her back. So he hired an Indian to get Pocahontas to come on board his ship, and when she came he sailed away with her to Jamestown.

112. Marriage of Pocahontas. — As might have been expected, Powhatan was furious. He demanded that the English give her up at once, and said that he would kill every person at Jamestown if she were not set free. But when he learned that she was well treated and held in great respect by the Jamestown people, his anger cooled; and later, he was pleased when he was told that a young Englishman wished to marry her. The young Indian girl, having been baptized, was married in the church to John Rolfe.

113. Better Times. — After “the starving time,” the colony was never in danger of being given up. A better class of people came, and better judgment was used in carrying on affairs. The colony was safe, and from this time it spread out and grew.

White men had now come to North America to stay at five points far distant from one another. The Spanish were at Santa Fé and at St. Augustine; the Dutch were at the mouth of the Hudson; the French were on the St. Lawrence; and the English at Jamestown.

114. Government by the People. — In 1619, Sir George Yeardley was sent from England as governor of the Jamestown colony, and he brought a set of rules, called a charter, under which he was to govern. These provided that he should call a few chosen men to represent the people in making laws. Two men from each of the eleven boroughs met with the governor and his council in the Jamestown church, July 30, 1619. The meeting was called the Assembly, and it lasted for about a week. A few laws were made, one of which was that all people should attend church regularly. The men who came from the boroughs were called Burgesses, and the Assembly, which was to meet every year, was called

the House of Burgesses. This was the beginning in America of government by the people.

115. Prosperity. — People liked the idea of living where they could govern themselves. Besides, it was now plain that money could be made in Virginia in growing tobacco. Forty thousand pounds of the leaf were now sent to England each year, and more was wanted. Rich men went to Virginia to start great tobacco plantations. The forests were



JAMESTOWN IN 1622

cut down, and tobacco grew where trees had stood. The planters began to go to other rivers, of which there were many along the low coast slope. Thus the settlement spread out, and the colony became Virginia rather than Jamestown. Good government and industry had brought prosperity. In 1622 there were four thousand people in the colony.

By this time women were coming, and not a little of the change for the better was due to them. There were, at this time, a hundred and fifty women in the colony, and a hundred and fifty English homes with English wives and mothers were a great force for good in the new country.

116. Slavery. — In all the Spanish settlements there were slaves. In England from the very first there had been slaves, and so it was thought proper by the settlers in Virginia that they, too, should have slaves. It was hard for the planters to raise tobacco for want of laborers.

The indentured servants were too few to do the work, and in time they would all be free, after their passage money was paid. Slaves that would always be slaves were wanted, and the colonists got them. One day in 1619, a Dutch ship from the coast of Africa came up the James River with a cargo of negroes who had been dragged away from their homes. Of the whole cargo only twenty were left, and these were sick and starving. The planters bought them for slaves. Thus negro slavery began in America. More ships came with more negroes, and soon there were slaves in all the colonies. By the end of the century one fourth of the human beings in Virginia were negro slaves.

117. The London Company loses its Charter. — King James I began to watch the growth of the colony. The London Company had become rich and powerful by the trade in tobacco. Many of its members were in Parliament, and they opposed him in some of his plans. To punish them, he took away the charter of the company in 1624, and began to govern the colony himself. From that time, Virginia was called a royal province. While a new set of laws was being made, which would have taken self-government away from the Virginians, the king died.

James's son, Charles, followed him as king and was called Charles I. His reign was full of trouble, so that he had no time to carry out the purpose of his father, and thus it happened that Virginia kept its self-government.

118. Royal Governors. — In 1627 Governor Yeardley



THE ENGLISH COUNTRY IN NORTH AMERICA

died, and King Charles made Sir John Harvey governor. After having been robbed by Harvey the Virginians sent him home, in 1635, much to the anger of King Charles.

The king sent him back, and he ruled until 1639. But the troubles at home that were to cost Charles his head had begun, and he dared not force Harvey upon the colonists any longer. He then sent Sir William Berkeley as governor in 1641. Berkeley, like his master, was a tyrant. He held the lower classes in contempt, and was opposed to all that might tend to raise them in life. He was the enemy of schools and printing presses.

119. Death of King Charles I.—King James began a course of tyranny in England which his son, Charles I, carried on after the death of his father. He tried to control the religion of the English people, and he taxed them beyond reason. The nobles and the gentry, called Cavaliers, were with the king, while the common people, called Puritans or Roundheads, were against him. At length civil war began, and the Puritans under Oliver Cromwell defeated the Cavaliers. King Charles I was tried for treason, found guilty, and beheaded in 1649.

120. The Coming of the Cavaliers.—When the king and his friends were defeated in England, many of the Cavaliers went to Virginia, where they took great tracts of land for plantations and built fine mansions. They owned many slaves, who tilled their fields and raised the crops of tobacco which were sold in England. The plantations were on the river banks, and each had its landing, to which ships came for cargoes. Food was plentiful, but nearly all else was bought in England and brought in the ships that came for tobacco.

121. The Puritans leave Virginia.—There were about a thousand Puritans in Virginia, and they were so oppressed by Berkeley that, in 1649, they went to Maryland, a new Catholic colony, where for a time people of all sects were well treated. The Puritans quarreled with the Catholic founders

of the colony in after years, and growing in power secured the repeal of the Toleration Act, which had granted in Maryland freedom of religious worship to all sects professing the Christian religion. After this, for some years, they bitterly persecuted the Catholics of that colony.

122. The Time of the Commonwealth in England. — After the death of King Charles I there was need of a strong



HOUSE SUCH AS THE CAVALIERS BUILT IN VIRGINIA
Westover Mansion, owned by James Byrd, who held a command
under Bacon in Bacon's rebellion.

ruler for England, and the Puritans placed their great leader, Cromwell, in power, calling him Lord Protector. He began to rule in 1653 and continued in power for five years.

He sent his agents to Virginia in 1653 to settle matters with the colonists. Berkeley gave up his office, and the government was now in the hands of the Burgesses. They chose their own council and governor, and things went well with the colony, except that Catholics were persecuted, until 1658 when Lord Baltimore was restored to the proprietorship.

123. Charles II. — Cromwell died in 1658, after which his son ruled England for a short time, and then Charles, son of the Charles who had been beheaded, became King Charles II, in 1660. When word reached Virginia that Charles was king, the people knew that they must gain his favor; so the Burgesses at once elected Berkeley governor. Virginia was now under Cavalier control and times were bad for Puritans and for those of all religious sects, except the Established Church of England. The House of Burgesses, made up of friends of Berkeley, so managed that there was no election of its members for sixteen years. In this way the people were cheated out of their right to have Burgesses of their own choosing.

Charles II was a tyrant and a worse king than his father. He believed with his father and his grandfather James I, that the king ruled by authority of God, and that he could do as he pleased with the people, and that what he saw fit to do was none of their business. He said that their part of government was to pay the bills, and to do the king's fighting for him, and ask no questions. He claimed that Virginia belonged to him to do with as he pleased.

124. Trouble with the Indians. — As long as Powhatan lived, after the marriage of his daughter Pocahontas to an Englishman, he was the friend of the settlers, and he kept his Indians from doing them very serious harm.

After the death of Powhatan in 1618, Opechancanough, his brother, became chief, and he felt it his duty to fight to save the country for his people. He made his plans with great care and spent four years in getting ready. The whites knew of no danger and allowed the Indians to come and go freely about their houses. The chief, when all was ready, divided his warriors into bands, so that an attack could be made at

the same hour on Jamestown and on all the plantations along the rivers. A few families who had been warned by friendly Indians escaped, but they had no time to warn others. By sunset of that day nearly four hundred men, women, and children had been murdered.

After this day of murder, the English fought the Indians without mercy. All trade with them was stopped, and they were driven back farther and farther, and this went on for twenty-two years before the Indians made another strong fight.

In 1644, they attacked some outlying settlements and killed about three hundred people. Again the English harried them, and there was skirmishing for some time, until the Indians, hard pressed by the English, were forced to give up forever their lands between the York and the James rivers. They went far west and north, and for the next thirty years there was no further trouble of this kind in Virginia.

In 1676, the Susquehannock Indians, who lived around the head of Chesapeake Bay, were driven by another tribe as far south as the Potomac River. There they came to English settlements, and two of their number visited the English to ask for peace. They were brutally murdered. Enraged at this, the Susquehannocks attacked several settlements and destroyed them.

125. Bacon's Rebellion. — At length the Indians attacked a plantation owned by Nathaniel Bacon, a young lawyer, and murdered some of his servants. Angered at this, Bacon set out to put a stop to their deadly work. He first asked Governor Berkeley to allow him to act. But Berkeley refused and declared Bacon and his men traitors and outlaws. Then Bacon went to the Assembly, of which he was a member, and got leave to make war on the Indians. After

this he went with about twenty of his men and made the governor consent to his plan. Though the governor had again declared him and his men outlaws, Bacon with about six hundred men killed nearly the whole tribe of Indians.

As his force came back to Jamestown, the governor ran away. A little later he came back with some of his friends, but ran away again. Angry at the conduct of Berkeley and his followers, Bacon's men set fire to Jamestown and destroyed it. A short time afterward Bacon was taken sick and died. Not long after that Berkeley was removed by the king.

126. Country and Climate. — By this time the people had explored the country of Virginia. Rivers had been followed to their sources, and the Alleghany Mountains had been found. It was known that there was a system of rivers, running seaward across an almost level strip of land many miles wide. This carried off the abundant rainfall, and the soil, though not very rich, was fairly good. The colonists had grown used to the weather and knew what to expect as to length of season and time for planting. The climate was very mild and healthful, but not adapted to the growth of oranges, lemons, tea, coffee, and other hot climate products. Tobacco, corn, wheat, and other grains, together with the common vegetables, thrive well. It began to look as if things favored the growth in Virginia of a great branch of the English people.

SUMMARY

1. The Plymouth and London companies were formed in England by English merchants, 1606.
2. Grants of land were made by James I to these companies, 1606.
3. By a second grant or charter (1609) the land that might be settled was made to extend from sea to sea.
4. The London Company sent settlers to Jamestown, May, 1607.



BACON DEFIES BERKELEY

Drawing by J. E. Kelley

5. Captain John Smith was the most helpful man among the number. The successful English settlement at Jamestown was due to his energy and bravery.
6. The colony was saved by the coming of Lord Delaware.
7. Tobacco was the principal crop of the colony.
8. The House of Burgesses met at Jamestown church, July 30, 1619. This was the first assembly of colonists in America to make its own laws.
9. Negro slaves were brought to Virginia in 1619.
10. The London Company lost its charter in 1624.
11. In 1653, Oliver Cromwell became a power in England. During this time, 1653-1660, Virginia was ruled by the House of Burgesses.
12. Sir William Berkeley was Governor of Virginia for a second time, 1660-1676.
13. Uprisings of the Indians against the white settlers happened in 1622 and 1644.
14. Bacon's Rebellion began in 1676, and ended in the burning of Jamestown.
15. Soil and climate of Virginia.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. What companies were formed by English merchants to settle Virginia?
2. When did the first expedition sent by the London Company leave England? Who was in charge of this expedition?
3. What man among the first colonists was very helpful to their success?
4. Who was the chief of the Indians that lived near Jamestown?
5. Tell about the capture of Captain John Smith by the Indians. How was he saved from death?
6. Tell about "The Starving Time."
7. What, at an early date, became the principal crop of Virginia?
8. What was the House of Burgesses? When did it first meet? For what purpose?
9. When did negro slavery begin in Virginia?
10. Who were the Cavaliers? Why did they leave England and come to this country?
11. Describe the two Indian massacres.
12. What was the cause of Bacon's Rebellion?
13. What was the character of the country and climate of Virginia?

CHAPTER VI

NEW YORK AND NEW JERSEY

127. The Hudson River; The Coming of the Dutch. — Hudson sent word to the Dutch merchants, who had hired him to search for a western route to India, that he had failed. But he wrote to them that he had found a country in America where the natives had plenty of fine furs which they gave freely for beads and other cheap trinkets. The Dutch merchants at once fitted out a ship laden with such things as they thought would please the savages, and in 1610 sent her to the Hudson River for furs. The ship came back with a cargo of furs, and the voyage was very profitable.

128. A Dutch Settlement. — Soon more ships were sent over, and as early as 1614 Dutch ships were making regular trips to the Hudson River. There was need of a trading point to which the Indians could bring furs, so at the mouth of the river a few buildings were put up on the island which the Indians called Manhattan. These were built of slabs split from trunks of trees, and broad pieces of bark were lapped over one another, for roofs. This settlement the Dutch called New Amsterdam.

The French were already getting furs from the Indians in the St. Lawrence River country around Montreal in the north, and the Dutch made haste to get the fur trade in the Hudson River country through their trading post at Albany.

The Dutch had traded for many years in all parts of the world, and they knew that it was wise to deal fairly with sav-

ages. So, from the first, they tried to gain the friendship of the Indians and took care to treat them well. The red men soon learned where they could exchange their fur pelts for such things as they fancied, and the fur-buyers of Manhattan did a great business. From very distant points the Indians came bringing the skins of the mink, the fox, the otter, and, most important of all, the beaver. They took in exchange knives, hatchets, beads, buttons, looking-glasses, gay ribbons, and gaudy paints.

129. Dutch Treaty with the Iroquois. — A treaty of peace, which proved to be very important, was made with the Iroquois Indians in 1617 at the present site of Albany. The treaty provided that the Dutch in exchange for furs should sell to the Iroquois guns, such as Champlain had used when he helped the Algonquins to defeat them. To show that they meant to keep peace with the Dutch, the Indians threw a tomahawk on the ground and stamped upon it until they had driven it out of sight.

130. Importance of the Hudson River. — The Hudson River flowing from the north was a waterway for Indians in canoes, just as it now is for white men in steamboats and other vessels. Beyond its source lay Lake George and Lake Champlain. Indians came south in canoes through those lakes, and entering the Hudson went down that stream to Manhattan. Not only did they come from beyond the headwaters of the Hudson, but also from the west through the Mohawk Valley. By means of the Hudson River the Dutch got the fur trade of the surrounding country.

It was soon thought best to have a trading place up the river, as well as at its mouth. The shrewd Dutch chose the point near where the Mohawk River enters the Hudson, and there they built a fort and put up houses. In those

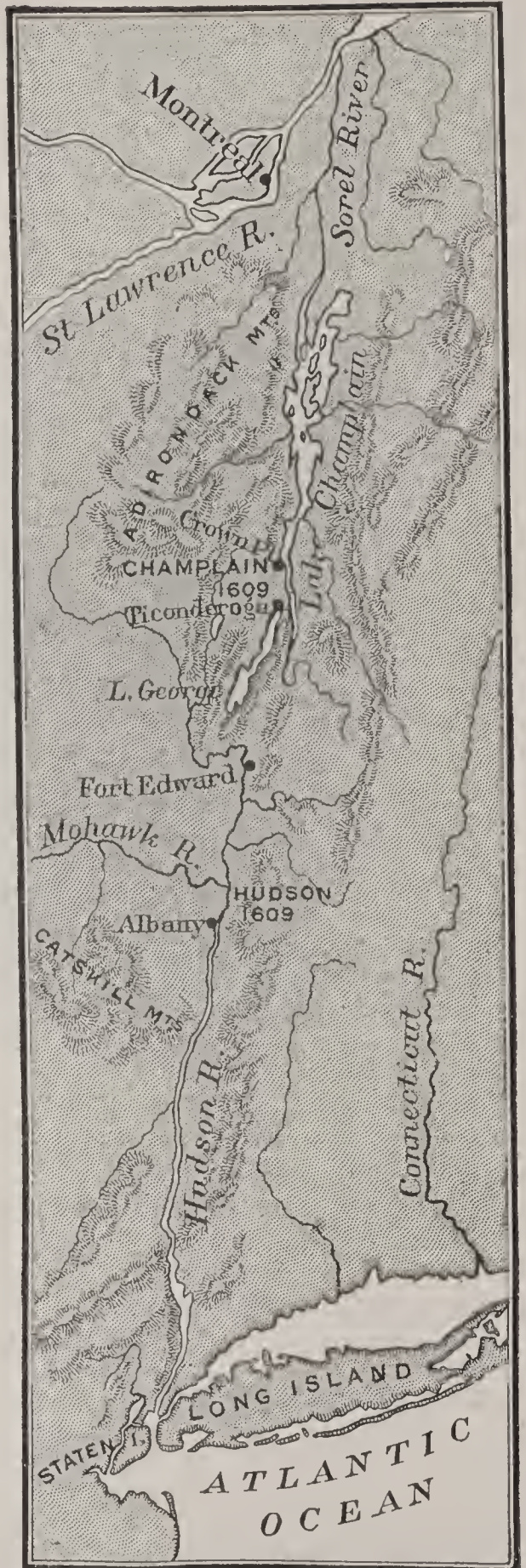
days there was no knowing what the Indians might do, and it was never safe to have a trading post without a fort. Both the French and the Dutch always built a fort at each trading post.

131. Long Island Sound and Connecticut River. —

In 1614, a vessel was built at Manhattan and a Dutch captain, named Adrian Block, sailed through Long Island Sound and discovered the Connecticut River and some islands, one of which now bears his name. This gave the Dutch a right to claim the country drained by the Connecticut.

They gave the name New Netherland to the country which lay along the coast from the Connecticut on the north to the Delaware on the south and they claimed this country as their own.

132. The Dutch West India Company. — In 1621 wealthy men in Holland formed a company to send out trading vessels to this



country to buy and sell goods and make settlements. This company was called the Dutch West India Company. The government gave it full control of the New Netherland country, and it began to plant settlements on the Connecticut, the Hudson, and the Delaware rivers. It built a fort on the Delaware nearly opposite where Philadelphia now stands.

Shortly after the forming of the Dutch West India Company, settlements were made near New Amsterdam. In 1623, a party of Walloons settled at Wallabout Bay, on the Long Island shore, opposite Manhattan Island. The Walloons were French-speaking people, who, in order to escape religious persecution, had fled from Belgium to Holland, whence, on the invitation of the West India Company, they had come to America. Other Dutch settlements were made later, on Long Island, at Gowanus and Breuckelen (Brooklyn) southwest of Wallabout Bay, and at the village of Bushwick, a short distance east of the Wallabout settlement, while Flatbush was settled in 1651. There were also Dutch settlements on Staten Island and along the Hudson River in what is now New Jersey.

133. Peter Minuit buys Manhattan Island. — As the fur trade grew and the company prospered, the settlements grew, and the company sent over Peter Minuit as governor of New Netherland. From that time, as long as New Netherland remained subject to Holland, the company kept a governor at New Amsterdam. These governors, Peter Minuit, Wouter Van Twiller, William Kieft, and Peter Stuyvesant were controlled under the laws of Holland, by the directors of the company.

Minuit looked over the bay, where all the ships of the world might lie safe from storms, and saw before him the Hudson River and the vast range of country whose trade it commanded. He saw that the East River led to the trade of Long

Island Sound, and to that of all the region which could be reached by the Connecticut River and other rivers flowing into the sound. It was clear to him that the company had a wonderful center for trade. Knowing that Manhattan Island would in the future be of great value, he bought it from the Indians. He paid them what they thought was a large



PURCHASE OF MANHATTAN ISLAND FROM THE RED MEN

price, giving beads, buttons, and other trifles, which cost the company about twenty-four dollars.

134. The Patroons. — The directors in Holland voted to give great stretches of land in New Netherland to such of their number as chose to take them. Each one might take up a tract of land sixteen miles long, fronting on one side of any river in New Netherland, or he could take half on each side of a river. The tract might run back from the river as far as the owner liked.

Each of these landholders brought from Holland fifty persons to live upon his ground and till the soil. He was obliged to bring horses, cows, and other farm animals, and such farm tools as might be needed. The landholder was called a *Patroon*, and governed the people on his land.



DUTCH PATROON OR
LANDED PROPRIETOR

A number of wealthy members of the company came to New Netherland and took up great tracts of land, on the Hudson and the Delaware rivers. By thus bringing in so many farmers and improving the country, they gave the colony some strength. Then began the cutting down of forest trees, the planting of fields, and the building of good solid houses.

After trial of the patroon plan for ten years, it was found that poor men had no chance to farm for themselves. Then many grants of small farms were made to those who could not afford to work large ones. This had a good effect, and the colony grew in numbers and in strength.

As the years passed, the people came to dislike the rule of the governors sent over by the home company, and they chafed under the control of the patroons. In the Massachusetts colony, not far away, the people by vote in town meeting made their own laws. The people of New Netherland knew this, and thought that they should have the same right.

135. War with Indians. — At one time the company sent over as governor a man named William Kieft. Among his other evil deeds, he broke faith with the Indians. When a

party of them; chased by another tribe, came to the Dutch for safety, he promised to protect them. Yet, when they were asleep at night, he let his men fall upon and brutally murder nearly all of the party, even the women and children.

This horrible deed roused the Indians to revenge, and, in 1641, they began a war upon the Dutch which lasted four years. Great loss of life and property followed, and the



NEW AMSTERDAM IN 1656

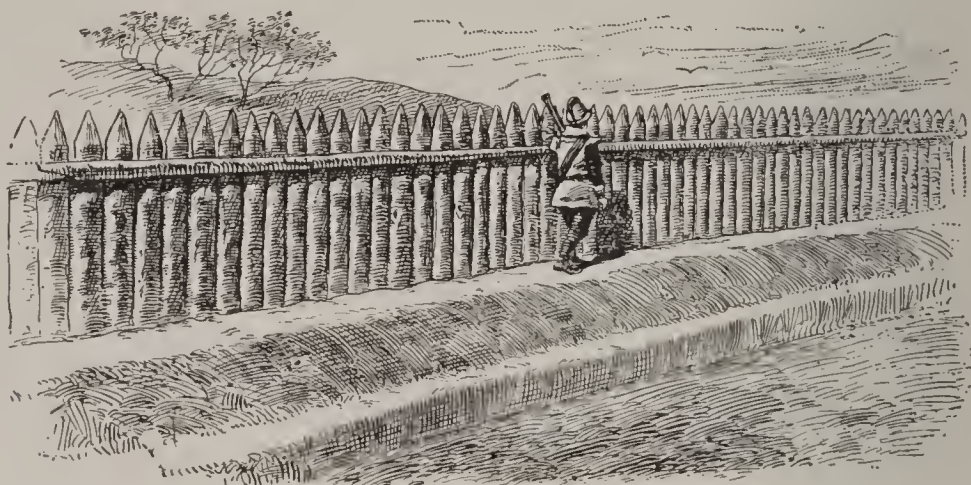
From Van der Donck's Map of New Netherland, 1656.

cost of carrying on the war fell on the people, for which they blamed Governor Kieft. They said that the attack on the Indians should not have been made, and that there would have been no war if a voice in affairs had been given to them such as the people of Massachusetts had. At this time many people went away from New Amsterdam, and at length there were left about two hundred only. These made such complaints to the company in Holland, that in 1647 a new governor was sent to them. He was Peter Stuyvesant, a one-legged war veteran, the last of the Dutch governors at New Amsterdam.

136. Free Religion. — The Dutch, in matters of religion, were a free-minded people. It was to Holland that the

Pilgrims went from England, before they sailed for Plymouth, and there they were far better treated than they had been at home. In New Netherland the Dutch showed the same willingness to let people follow any religious belief that pleased them. For this reason, people of many sects came as immigrants to New Amsterdam.

In 1647 Stuyvesant allowed the people to appoint a committee of nine citizens to consider public matters, though he



THE OLD WALL, NEW YORK. BUILT IN 1623.

From "Wall Street in History," by Mrs. Martha J. Lamb.

did not agree to follow their advice. Little as this was, it was a step toward self-government such as the settlers in all the English colonies were enjoying. Following up this gain, the people pleaded with the company in Holland with such force that, in 1653, New Amsterdam was allowed to have a city government. There were now from eight hundred to a thousand dwellers in the town.

It was at about this time that a wall was built across the island from the East River to the North River, as a defense against Indians or any other enemy that might attack from the land side. This wall was made of heavy high posts set closely, side by side, and building it for a town of so few

people was a great undertaking. It ran where Wall Street now is. The town lay between the wall and the water, around the point of the island.

137. New Netherland takes New Sweden. — There was a colony of Swedes on the Delaware River, and Governor Stuyvesant wanted no colony of another nation, on land that was a part of New Netherland. In 1655, Sweden was at war in Europe and the Dutch governor of New Amsterdam thought it was a good time to attack the Swedish colony on the Delaware River. So he sent a fleet and took possession. He left the Swedes in peace only after they had agreed to be subject to the government of New Netherland.

By this time, many of the English had moved from Massachusetts and settled on the Connecticut River and along the shores of Long Island Sound on land claimed by the Dutch. Stuyvesant tried to make them come under his rule, but they refused, and he did not think it wise to try to compel them.

138. England takes New Netherland. — England claimed nearly all the Atlantic coast, and had settlements in both the northern and southern parts.

After the downfall of Spanish sea power, Holland became England's great rival for the trade of the world. The Dutch claimed much of the best part of North America. Their settlements in the New World separated those of England from each other, and they held the best harbor in the world. More than that, they had a very profitable fur trade. Such a state of things would never do; England must have an unbroken country along the Atlantic coast of America; England must have the fur trade; England must have New Netherland. So said the English king.

England's claim was a weak one. The Cabots in her

employ had sailed along the coast, more than a century and a half before, and on that fact she based her claims.



PETER STUYVESANT RECEIVING THE DEMANDS OF THE ENGLISH

In 1664, although there was peace between England and Holland, King Charles II of England sent a fleet to take New Amsterdam. The Dutch were too weak to resist. Without a shot being fired, New Amsterdam and all the rest of New Netherland, including the Swedish settlement on the Delaware, fell under English rule.

139. New York. — This was easily brought about. Stuyvesant stormed and raved; but he had been a tyrant. The people hated him, and they felt sure that they would be better off under the English than under the Dutch. They were quite willing that the change should be made. The Dutch flag came down, the English flag went up, and New Amsterdam became New York. It was so named after James, Duke of York, and brother of the king. King Charles II had given the Dutch holdings in America to James. Fort Orange, up the North River, was now called Albany, for James was Duke of Albany as well as Duke of York. The whole colony was called New York instead of New Netherland.

New York, with its ten thousand people, was governed now by the English under the Duke of York and Albany, as it had been by the Dutch West India Company. He sent out a governor, but did not give the people much voice in affairs. In 1683, King Charles II appointed Thomas Dongan governor of the colony of New York. The Duke of York, afterwards King James II, consented that Governor Dongan might take steps for the election of a General Assembly, which, acting with the governor and his council, was to determine what laws were to be made for the government of the colony. The General Assembly met, and among other acts, passed the "Charter of Liberties," or Dongan's charter. It granted freedom in voting and in matters of religion, and provided that no tax should be levied upon the colonists except by the "People met in General Assembly," acting with the consent of the governor and his council.

When the Duke of York became James II, he revoked this charter, and the form of popular government, so happily begun, came to an end. The General Assembly was shortly afterward dissolved, and the government was then in the

hands of Governor Dongan and his council, until he was recalled in 1688. The government of the colony continued from this time to the close of the Revolutionary War in the hands of Royal governors sent from England.

In 1685 the Duke of York became King James II of England; he then attached New York to the colonies of New England, and appointed Edmund Andros as governor.

140. Jacob Leisler. — In 1688 James II was driven from the throne and William III became king. Jacob Leisler, a



JACOB LEISLER'S HOUSE

merchant of New York, proclaiming that government under James II was at an end, seized the fort and declared that he would not surrender it except to a governor to be appointed by the new English king, William III. The king, upon learning of this, appointed

as governor of the colony an unfit man whose name was William Sloughter.

In the meantime (1690) Leisler, falsely declaring that he had been appointed lieutenant-governor of the colony, became somewhat tyrannical in his conduct. The commander of an English ship which had arrived at New York, demanded the surrender of the fort in the king's name, but Leisler refused to surrender to anyone except Governor Sloughter. An attempt was made to take the fort, and some on each side were killed. When Governor Sloughter arrived, Leisler and a few others were tried for treason and sentenced to be hanged. Only Leisler and his son-in-law were executed, and their fate was probably undeserved.

141. John Peter Zenger and the Freedom of the Press. — John Peter Zenger, the editor of a newspaper published in New York (1734), angered Governor Cosby by printing statements about his unlawful acts in interfering with courts and



THE STADTHUYS, NEW YORK, 1679

After Brevoort's drawing. ("Stadthuys" is Dutch for "statehouse.")

judges, without the consent of the Assembly, and in thus depriving the people of their right to fair trials.

In fact, Zenger attacked almost every branch of Cosby's government. He was thrown into prison on charges of libel brought by the governor, and remained there for about eight months. This caused great excitement in the colony. Zenger was defended at his trial by Andrew Hamilton, an old but able Philadelphia lawyer. The defense was that what had been published was true, while the prosecution claimed that it was unlawful to publish anything against the authorities, true or false. After an exciting trial, Zenger was acquitted, and to the old Quaker lawyer, Hamilton, were given the

greatest honors for his skilful conduct of the case, resulting, as it did, in establishing the right of free speech.

After William III became king, war raged between France and England for seven years, and caused fighting between the northern English colonies and the French of Canada. The Canadians, with their Indian allies made trouble for the people of New York, but had gained no ground when peace was declared.

142. New Jersey — When the English took New Netherland from the Dutch, they took the country between the Hudson River and the Delaware as a part of it. Up to that time there was no name for that country. King Charles II had given what is now New York and New Jersey to his brother James. James then granted the land which lay between the Hudson and the Delaware, to Carteret and Berkeley. One of these men had been governor of the Island of Jersey, part of England, and King James named the country that he had sold, New Jersey.

Berkeley, one of the owners, finally sold the western part, his share, to some Quakers, who founded the city of Burlington. Five years after the founding of Burlington in West Jersey, East Jersey was bought by a company in which were many Quakers, one of whom was William Penn.

In 1702 the owners of New Jersey gave up the colony to the king. Then the colony had for governor whoever happened to be governor of New York. But at length the colony had its own governor until the great rebellion against England, called the Revolution, succeeded, and then it became one of the United States.

SUMMARY

1. Henry Hudson sent word to the Dutch that he had found a part of the New World where furs could be found in plenty.
2. The Dutch founded a trading post on Manhattan Island (1614). To this they gave the name of New Amsterdam.
3. The Dutch made a treaty of peace with the Iroquois and were thus able to secure furs from them.
4. The Dutch West India Company was formed in 1621, to settle and control the country extending from the Connecticut to the Delaware rivers. This region was called by the Dutch New Netherland.
5. Peter Minuit, the first Dutch governor, bought Manhattan Island from the Indians.
6. The Patroon system proved a failure.
7. Peter Stuyvesant became governor of New Amsterdam in 1647.
8. The Swedish settlement on the Delaware was taken by the Dutch in 1655.
9. The English took possession of New Netherland in 1664.
10. The country between the Delaware and Hudson rivers became the colony of New Jersey in 1702.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. On account of what trade was the Hudson River country valuable to the Dutch?
2. When did they first found a trading post? What did they call this trading post? Why?
3. Why did the Dutch find it easy to trade with the Indians?
4. Why was the Dutch West India Company formed? Over what region in this country was it to have control?
5. Who was the first Dutch governor at New Amsterdam? The last?
6. Why was the Patroon system a failure?
7. What colony on the Delaware surrendered to the Dutch? When?
8. When did the English take possession of New Netherland? To whom did Charles II grant New Netherland? What was New Amsterdam now called?
9. To whom was New Jersey first granted? By whom?

CHAPTER VII

THE NEW ENGLAND COLONIES

143. Cape Cod. The Kennebec River Settlement. — In 1602, Bartholomew Gosnold sailed from England to the northern part of the queen's coast in America, and discovered a cape which he named Cape Cod. Other Englishmen went to that section to trade with the Indians and to catch cod-fish, so that the people of England came to know something about the North Virginia country.

In the year that the London Company sent Captain Newport to the James River, the Plymouth Company sent Sir George Popham with a large band of emigrants, to the Kennebec River in what is now Maine. But Popham's men could not stand the severe winters of the north, and they did not like the rocky and barren soil; so they gave up the settlement within a year, and went back to England.

144. Smith explores the New England Coast. — Gosnold had often talked with Captain John Smith about the North Virginia country. Smith said that if he had a chance, he would go to that coast and explore it.

After Smith had left Jamestown, he returned to this country and visited the coast, from Cape Cod to the Penobscot River, and named that region New England. In doing this, he followed the fashion of the time, when nations in Europe gave their own names to the parts of America discovered by them. Thus, there were New Spain, New France, New Netherland, New Sweden, and New England. Since then all these except New England have lost their old names.

145. The Puritans. — In 1517 a religious movement was started in Europe from which sprang the forming of Protestant churches. Some nations, like England and Holland, became Protestant, while others, like France and Spain, remained Catholic. In France and England the people



NEW ENGLAND OF THE PILGRIMS AND PURITANS

were divided, and there was much feeling between those of different beliefs. This was very true of England, where there were many Catholics who were disliked and persecuted by the Protestants. The latter formed what was called the Church of England. Within this church were members called Puritans, determined to bring about certain changes in forms of worship.

At this period the kings of England were of the Church of

England, and they abused their subjects in religious matters quite as much as they did in other ways. Those were hard days for the Catholics in England, and their persecution there led them a few years later to found the colony of Maryland.

146. The Separatists. — Among the Puritans were some, called Separatists, who had left the Church of England and



MAP OF HOLLAND AND A PART OF ENGLAND

had their own ways of worship. The anger of King James and his friends fell on the Separatists, and they fled from England. They were not wanted in any Catholic country so, in 1608, they went to Holland where they were well treated. They were living there when the Plymouth Company was looking for strong, hard-working men to make a colony in North Virginia. These Puritans on the other side of the North Sea in Holland, called Separatists, were a church company, with their minister, fathers, mothers, and children.

Though they were far from England, they were proud of being English; they loved the language and the ways of

their countrymen. It grieved them to think that they and their children and grandchildren were to live among the Dutch, and as time went on, were to lose their language and become as Dutch people.

They wanted to go where they could be English, and yet be free from abuse by the king and his party. They had heard of America, and had been told of Jamestown. They would have gone there, but they knew that the king and his church ruled the colony, and that men and women there attended the Church of England services. They had heard of the Dutch settlements on the Hudson and had been invited to go there, but there they would be among the Dutch. Not that they disliked the Dutch; they knew they were good people, but they wanted their children to grow up among English people.

They knew that the king wanted a colony in the cold north, and that the Plymouth Company wanted men, women, and children to go there. After spending twelve years in Holland, they went back to England to join the company of Pilgrims about to leave that country for the New World.

147. The Pilgrims go to America.—The Separatist Puritans sailed from Plymouth, England, September 6, 1620, in a little ship called the *Mayflower*. There were one hundred and two in the party — men, women, and children — though not all were Separatists. They now began to call themselves Pilgrims, because they were wanderers.

The Pilgrims meant to land not very far from the Dutch settlement, but they were driven out of their course and went to the coast of New England. Coming to a little bay marked on their map as Plymouth, they landed and made a settlement, December 22, 1620.

December is a very cold month in New England. To come

from the mild climate of Holland and to make a home on a bleak, wind-swept hillside, in the dead of a New England winter, with no food on shore and so little in the ship that the sailors needed it all, caused suffering that might well break the courage of the bravest soldier that ever went to battle. But these men, women, and children, many of whom were starved and ill, did this and never flinched.



SIGNING THE COMPACT IN THE CABIN OF THE "MAYFLOWER"

Before landing, the Pilgrims drew up and signed a set of rules. These rules were known as the "Mayflower Compact." It bound them to loyalty to the king and to the making of "just and equal laws for the general good of the colony." Thus they began with self-government, every man having an equal share in managing the affairs of the colony. They chose John Carver as governor for one year. But before spring came, he and his wife and son had perished from the awful hardship of the winter. Then William Bradford was elected governor. By spring more than half of the Pilgrims had died and those who still lived were sick and feeble.

148. Treaty with the Indians. — Governor Carver had made a treaty with the Indians, and thus the colony was safe from the savages. The Indians, being used kindly, kept this treaty for fifty years. As there was less abuse of the Indians than there had been at Jamestown, so there was less need of fighting men, though Plymouth



THE "MAYFLOWER" IN PLYMOUTH HARBOR
After the painting by Hallsall

had its fighter in Myles Standish, even as Jamestown had in John Smith.

The *Mayflower* lay in the harbor until spring, and then went back to England. Of all the Pilgrims that were left alive, not one asked to be taken back.

In the spring an Indian, named Squanto, came to the Pilgrims and told them that he was nearly the last of the Indians who had lived in the region around Plymouth, most of whom had been killed by a strange disease. He had been kidnapped some years before and carried to Europe, but

had made his way back. He taught the settlers how to plant corn and showed them how to dig clams at the beach. The Pilgrims might have starved had it not been for Squanto. Massasoit was one of the chiefs who had made a treaty with Governor Carver. He was as much to them as Powhatan had been to the Jamestown settlers.

149. The Pilgrims Work and Prosper. — The Plymouth settlers were deeply in debt for the expense of their trip, but they set about paying it with great vigor. The *Mayflower* made trips bringing supplies and immigrants, and taking back furs, clapboards, and such other things as the settlers could send to help pay the debt.

The soil was poor; they knew but little of farming, and their harvests were small. They suffered for food, but in a few years their industry showed its effect and they had food in plenty. In ten or twelve years there were ten or twelve hundred people in Plymouth. By that time more settlers were coming to other points on the coast not far away, and the settlement of New England was well started.

150. Puritans settle Salem; Massachusetts Bay Company. — The trouble in England that caused the Pilgrims to leave the country grew worse as the years went on. In 1625 King James died, and his son Charles became King Charles I. Like his father, he believed that he was king by the will of God, and that Englishmen and all that they had were subject to his will. He was worse than his father had been, and the Puritan party in England, which he had cruelly persecuted, now becoming great and powerful, opposed him. Among the Puritans at home were now many men of great wealth and high standing, who were ready to come to America to escape persecution. They were not known as Separatists, but as Non-conformists. They would not, as



PILGRIMS, PROTECTED BY ARMED MEN, ON THE WAY TO CHURCH

Painting by George H. Boughton

did the Pilgrims, separate entirely from the Church of England, but they refused to conform to all its methods of worship. They were so pleased with the success of the Plymouth colony that they formed a new company, and a party, under a leader named Endicott, came over and settled at a place on the Massachusetts coast which they called Salem.

Soon afterward, the company, with many new members, got from the king a charter which gave it more rights and a much better standing. It was now called the Massachusetts Bay Company. The king was very kind to the company. The Puritans of England were now making him feel uneasy, and he was glad to get as many of them as he could to leave England.

151. Boston. — In 1630 a great Puritan movement to Massachusetts began, and Boston was settled. As the Puritans kept coming, other towns were started, and soon people were living at many outlying points. Massachusetts began to fill as Virginia did in later years. By 1640 there were twenty thousand English people in Massachusetts. Besides the settlement at Boston, there were people living in the neighboring towns of Charlestown, Roxbury, Dorchester, Watertown, and in other places. All were prospering, and John Smith's name for the country seemed a good one, for indeed a new England had sprung up in America. Under King Charles's charter, the governor and other officers of the company could be elected in Massachusetts. The officers of other companies were elected or appointed by the king in England. John Winthrop was the first governor.

152. The General Court. — The settlers who came to Massachusetts did not come each for himself; they came as parties, and each started a church and a town for itself. The parish and the town were one. The Puritans in Massachu-

setts were a bigoted people. They would have no religion there but their own. None but Puritans were wanted, and unless a man belonged to the church, he could not vote. The church was a part of the government as much as it was in England, only it was a different church. The meeting-house was used for both church services and town meetings, and the minister was a most important person. After a while, there were so many people and towns that a General Assembly was formed, much like that of Virginia. It was called the General Court.



FIRST TOWN HOUSE IN BOSTON, 1658

153. Business.—Most of the soil of New England has always been poor. The winters are long, the summers short, and such farming as brought wealth to the settlers of Jamestown could not be done in Massachusetts. At best, only such crops could be raised as would serve to feed the people of the colony. The goods sent away for sale were mainly salted fish and lumber. After a while the people started shipbuilding, and began to trade with distant countries. They also engaged in whale fishing.

154. Connecticut. — Adrian Block, sailing from the Dutch settlement on Manhattan Island, had explored and discovered the Connecticut River as early as 1614. Nearly twenty years later (1633) the Dutch built a fort and trading station on that river where Hartford now stands. This was on land

claimed by the English, and to stop the Dutch from settling and getting control of the Connecticut Valley, a fort was built by Governor Winthrop at Saybrook, at the mouth of the Connecticut River (1635).

In 1636 there were two parties in Massachusetts. One held that the government should be in the hands of a few of the wisest and best men, while the other claimed that the majority should rule, as was the plan at the start. These different views caused the formation of a party of about a hundred men, women, and children, under Minister Hooker, who led them west into a beautiful valley where settlements were made at Wethersfield, Windsor, and Hartford, on the Connecticut River. These three settlements comprised the Connecticut Colony, which in 1639 adopted a written constitution that provided that all the people should choose their own governor and council. In 1638 a colony of Puritans from England settled what is now New Haven. This settlement and a few neighboring towns were known as the New Haven Colony, in which only members of the church were allowed to vote.

In a few years (1662) the Connecticut colonies united under the name of Connecticut and obtained from Charles II a very liberal charter which allowed the continuance of rule by the people.

155. Roger Williams; Rhode Island. — It was the law in Massachusetts that all people had to pay taxes though only church members could vote. There were other laws that seemed unfair. Among those who thought the laws unjust was Roger Williams, a young minister of Salem. Though he knew that his course would bring down on him the wrath of those who ruled the town, he boldly stated that the people and the church were wrong in many things, and that they ought to change the laws. He also took up the cause

of the poor Indian, and declared that taking his lands from him was robbery and theft.

What Williams said about religious freedom might not have caused trouble, for many Puritans thought as he did. But what he said about the Indian and his land was very



ROGER WILLIAMS WELCOMED BY THE INDIANS

likely to offend the king, who claimed that all America was his to give away or to sell, and the Puritans feared to stir up his anger.

So, more to save themselves than to punish Williams, they made him leave the colony. He knew that the Narragansett Indians were friendly to him, and he went to them, through the forest in the depth of winter. In 1635, at the head of Narragansett Bay, he started a settlement which was the beginning of the colony of Rhode Island. He said that God had provided for him, so he named this settlement Providence. He built there the first Baptist church in America.

156. Slave Ships. — About this time the people of the seaport towns were building vessels. One of these, the *Desire*, built at Marblehead, went to Africa and brought back a load of slaves. The negroes were sold to people of New England. Afterward slave ships from New England ports often went to Africa to bring back negroes, who were sold in all the colonies.

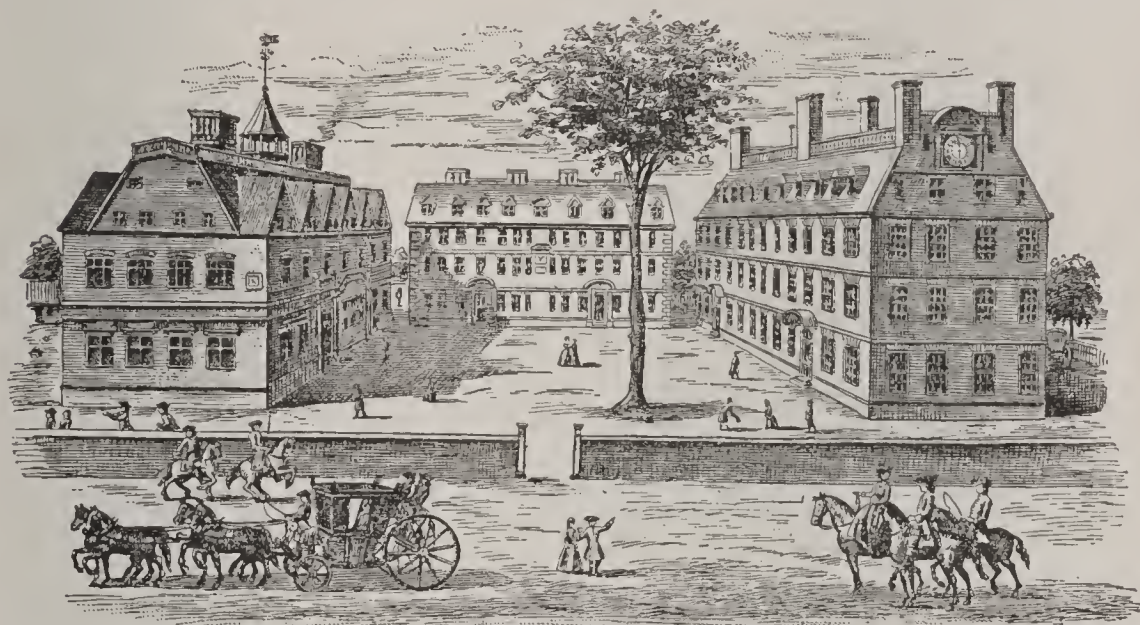
157. Maine and New Hampshire. — About twenty years after Popham's attempted settlement on the Kennebec, and about six years after Plymouth was settled, the country lying north and east of Massachusetts was granted by the king to two Englishmen, Mason and Gorges. They divided it, Mason calling his part New Hampshire and Gorges calling his Maine. Settlements were made at Biddeford and at Portland. After Gorges died, in 1677, his heirs sold Maine to Massachusetts. New Hampshire became a part of Massachusetts and so remained until 1680, when Charles II made it a separate colony.

158. Education in New England. — The Puritans both in England and in America always wanted schools. In this they differed greatly from the English settlers in the South. In 1636 the General Court of Massachusetts founded a college at Newtown, afterward called Cambridge, to which Rev. John Harvard gave his library and a sum of money. From that time it was called Harvard College. Three years later, there was a printing press at Cambridge, the first in America, except that the Spanish, a hundred years before, had a printing press and newspaper in the city of Mexico. About 1639 a law was passed in Massachusetts that each town must have a free public school. This was the beginning of the great American free school system.

159. The Pequot War. — Between Narragansett Bay and

the Hudson River dwelt three tribes of Indians, the Pequots, the Mohegans, and the Narragansetts. The Mohegans and the Narragansetts were not friendly to the powerful and fierce Pequots, whose home was in the eastern part of Connecticut.

In 1636 the Pequots murdered a party of traders led by Captain Stone of Virginia. To punish the Pequots, the Mas-



“A PROSPECT OF THE COLLEDGES IN CAMBRIDGE IN NEW ENGLAND”

After an early picture in the possession of the Massachusetts
Historical Society

sachusetts colony sent John Endicott of Salem against them with a fleet of five small vessels, carrying nearly a hundred men. The fleet made its way to the mouth of the Pequot River, where a landing was made. The Indians fell back, followed by the whites, the running fight being one of arrows against muskets. The Indian village of Pequot town was destroyed and a few Indians were killed.

There was a fort built by the English at Saybrook, at the mouth of the Connecticut River, where the Indians lay in wait, day after day, to kill such of the small garrison as they could catch outside. They hung about every settlement and

killed or captured every one who strayed within their reach. They also carried away all the farm animals they could get.

Runners were sent by the Pequots to the other tribes to get them to unite to kill all the English in the country. If the other tribes had joined them, the Indians might have destroyed every settlement.



FIGHT WITH THE PEQUOTS

Connecticut raised a force of nearly a hundred men, some of whom were from Massachusetts. This was joined by some Mohegan Indians, old foes of the Pequots. Early in June, 1637, this force marched against the Pequots who were found in a fort which they had built for safety. The onset was made just before daylight. The English broke in, fired the wigwams, and shot the Indians as they rushed out. They killed more than four hundred — men, women, and children. Thus, in a day, the great Pequot tribe was almost entirely destroyed. This terrible example had such

effect on all the Indians of New England that it was forty years before any of the tribes again made war on the whites.

160. The New England Confederation; Population; Death of King Charles I. — One of the lessons the Pequot War taught was that the colonies of New England must stand together. Other Indian wars might come. The Dutch might try to take the Connecticut Valley from the English settlers. The French might come down from Canada to take the whole country, which they said was theirs.

So, in 1643, for their own protection, all the colonies, except Rhode Island, formed a union. The union did not make any one colony subject to any of the others. Each still had full control of its own affairs, but meetings were often held to talk over and agree upon things for the good of all. In New England there were then about twenty-five thousand people — one in five being American-born.

This was about the time the Puritans of England rose in war against King Charles I. King Charles was so busy at home that he could not meddle with things in America. He gave up several plans which would have hurt the New England colonies. At the end of the war, he lost his life, and those plans were never carried out.

161. The Navigation Laws. — The welfare of England seemed to depend on her shipping business, which extended all over the world. As the Dutch were in the same business and were getting the ocean-carrying trade away from the English, Cromwell thought something should be done. In 1651 laws were passed that none but English ships should be allowed to bring goods to England. This shut out the Dutch vessels from English trade and kept it for those of the English. These laws were called the Navigation Laws.

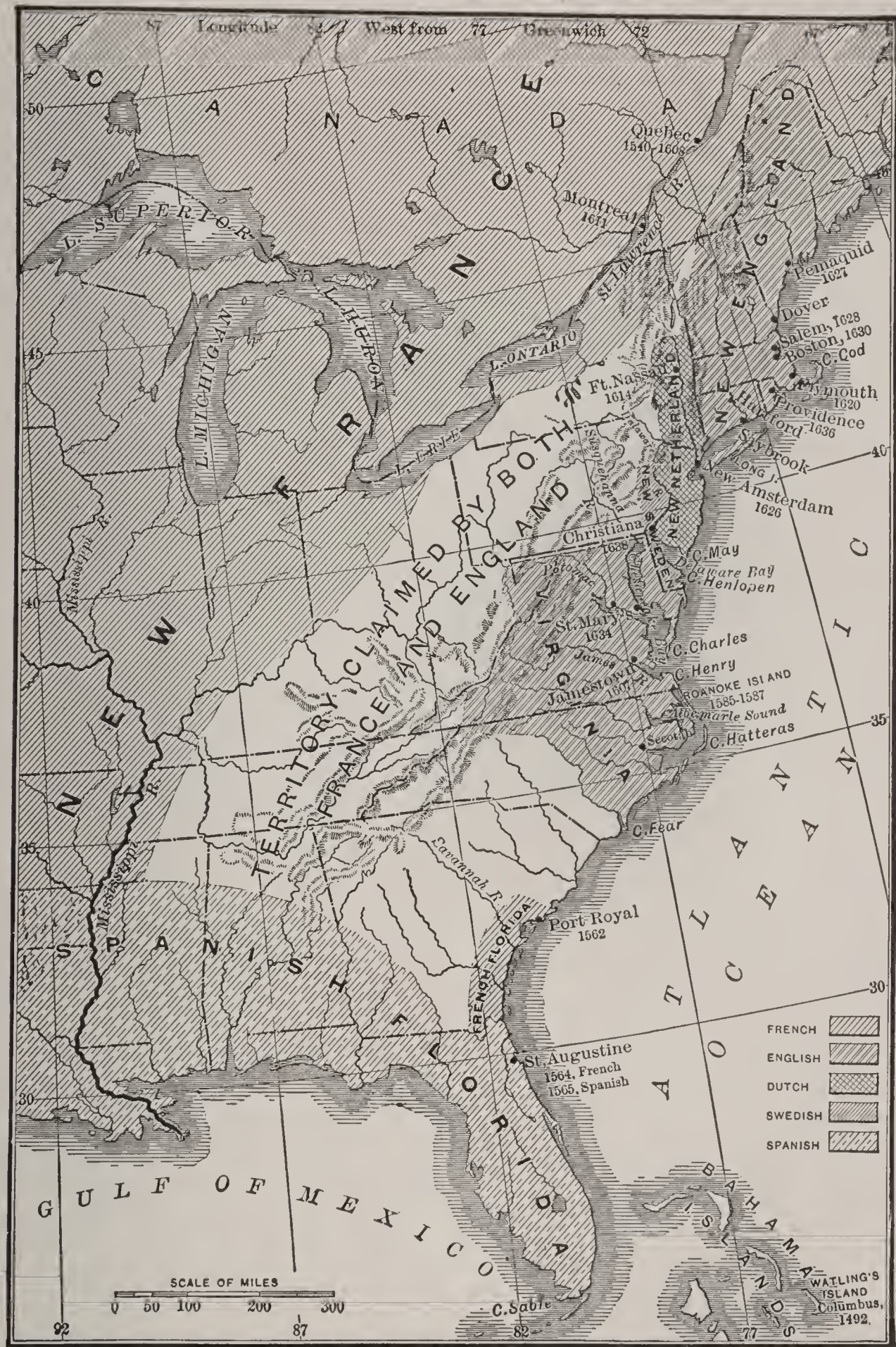
162. Other Bad Laws. — After Cromwell's rule ended,

Charles II added to the Navigation Laws some new ones that bore very heavily on the New England colonies. Laws were made that forbade the colonies to send their tobacco to any country but England. Of course, if they could sell only to the English, the English would pay just what they pleased. The colonists soon found that they could not get enough for tobacco to pay for raising it. This law nearly ruined the planters of Virginia and made many of them enemies to the king.

Another law forbade the people of the colonies to buy goods of any country but England. It forbade the colonies to trade with one another for such goods as each made. Thus the colonists were forced to buy from Englishmen the things that they must have, at any price the English chose to ask. Another law forbade the colonists to make any articles for their own use, when such articles could be bought in England.

163. When New Netherland became New York. — In 1664, the people of New England were pleased at the action of King Charles II in taking New Netherland from the Dutch. It put an end to the claim the Dutch had always made to the Connecticut River country, and it gave to England an unbroken strip of country all along the coast. The colonies of New England and Virginia welcomed New York as a sister English colony, and Englishmen began to go there, though the people of New York were mainly Dutch. It pleased the colonies when King Charles gave to some of his friends a vast tract of land south of Virginia, which they named Carolina. It began to look as though England was getting a firm hold on the Atlantic coast.

164. King Philip's War. — The Indians who lived about Plymouth were the Pocanokets, by some called the Wampanoags. They dwelt along the shore as far as Narragansett



Bay. Very soon after the landing of the Pilgrims, the Wampanoags, through their chief, Massasoit, made a treaty with the English. Both Massasoit and the people of Plymouth kept the treaty for many years.

In 1660, Massasoit, grown old and feeble, died. He left two sons, Wamsutta and Metacomet. The two young Indians, seeing how strong the English were growing, felt that it would be wise to be at peace with them as their father had been. They went to Plymouth, and Metacomet made a treaty with the Colonists. To show their good faith, they said that they would take English names, and asked the white men to say what they should be. The English said that Metacomet should be called Philip, and Wamsutta should be called Alexander. Alexander died soon afterward and Philip became chief. He made a new treaty with the English that the Pocanokets should be peaceful and friendly. But, however well Philip meant to keep his word, he could not control his young men. Some of them began to fight the English, and the war began before Philip was ready for it.

In the spring of 1675, the little town of Swansea was attacked by the Indians and several men were killed. At once, the English rallied and marched against Philip and his men. The Indians fled across an arm of Narragansett Bay, burning and killing as they went, and made their way into the middle of Massachusetts. There Philip was joined by Indians from other tribes, and the work of destroying outlying settlements began. Deerfield and other little towns were burned, and many men, women, and children were murdered. As winter came on, Philip began to work back to Rhode Island to get the Narragansetts to join him.

Canonchet was chief of the Narragansetts. The two tribes had never been very friendly. But the Mohegans

were helping the English against Philip, and Canonchet hated them because, years before, they had killed his father. So he took sides with the Pocanokets, and the two tribes prepared to pass the winter and take the warpath in the spring.



KING PHILIP SIGNING THE TREATY OF 1671

After the engraving of F. T. Merrill

Canonchet knew of a good place to build a fort and the Indians went there. It was in the middle of a swamp, not far from the west bank of the mouth of Narragansett Bay. Around the camp, they built a fence of logs. Within this circle, more than three thousand of them built their wigwams and stored their corn. It was then December, 1675. The war had raged since early spring, but the English did not let the Indians rest. One bitter cold day Governor Winslow of Plymouth, with a thousand soldiers, attacked the fort. After several hours' fighting, the fence was broken through, and the English rushed in. Then the battle was hand to hand. Soon

the wigwams were on fire, and the Indians were defeated. About a thousand were killed, and the rest, among whom were Philip and Canonchet, escaped. Philip was afterward shot by an Indian who was helping the English.

165. Massachusetts loses its Charter. — Many people of Massachusetts did not obey the navigation laws. They bought and sold goods wherever they pleased. They were also very determined about managing their own affairs.

King Charles II began to quarrel with Massachusetts. In 1684, he declared the charter of Massachusetts void, and thus the Massachusetts Bay Company came to its end. Before Charles could show what he meant to do, he died, and his brother James II became king.

166. James II and Andros. — James II at once began to stir up things in the colonies. In 1686, he made Sir Edmund Andros governor of New York, New Jersey, and the New England colonies, and told him to seize the charters of Connecticut and Rhode Island. When that had been done all the colonies would be without charters, and King James could deal with them, through Andros, just as he pleased. Andros, however, failed to get the charter of Connecticut. The most he could do was to declare that the government of that colony was ended.

Andros governed very harshly and unfairly, but when King James was driven from his throne, the people of Boston put Andros in prison until they sent him to England.

167. Witchcraft in Salem. — In 1692, numbers of innocent people in Salem were charged with being witches, which meant that they were supposed to be under the influence of evil spirits. Old or deformed persons were generally accused of causing sickness or other misfortunes, and after a mere form of trial were put to death. Before this nonsense ended,

nineteen people were hanged, among them a clergyman noted for his good deeds. One of the victims was a man more than eighty years old, who was crushed to death with heavy weights.

William III, who reigned after James II, was a good king, one of the best England ever had. He was just and fair, as far as he could be, not only to the people in England, but to those of the colonies. He



AN OLD HOUSE IN SALEM

ruled Holland as well as England, so that during his reign those two nations were at peace. He died in 1702, and "Good Queen Anne" began her reign. During his reign the New England colonies prospered, and none more than Massachusetts, under its new charter, which united it with Plymouth colony and Maine.

SUMMARY

1. The Plymouth Company attempted to make a settlement in Maine in 1607. This attempt ended in failure.
2. Captain John Smith explored the New England coast from Cape Cod to the Penobscot River in 1614.
3. The Pilgrims land at Plymouth in 1620.
4. Massachusetts Bay Company settled at Salem, 1626. Boston was settled in 1630.
5. The English from Massachusetts made a settlement on the Connecticut River at Hartford in 1636. In 1638, the Puritans settled New Haven.
6. Roger Williams started a settlement at Providence, Rhode Island, 1635.
7. Maine became part of Massachusetts in 1677.
8. The Pequot War ended in 1637, in the almost entire destruction of that tribe.
9. The Navigation Laws and other harsh measures passed in England bore heavily upon the colonies.

10. England took possession of New Netherland in 1664.
11. King Philip's War took place 1675-1676. By it the Pocanoket and the Narragansett tribes were destroyed.
12. Charles II took away the charter of the Massachusetts Bay Company in 1684.
13. Sir Edmund Andros was sent over to be governor of New York, New Jersey, and the New England colonies in 1686.
14. Witchcraft in Salem.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. Was any attempt made by England to plant a settlement on our northern coast before the landing of the Pilgrims? What company made this attempt? On what part of the coast did it try to make a settlement?
2. Who explored our New England coast six years before the landing of the Pilgrims?
3. When did the Pilgrims first land on our shores? When were Boston and Salem settled?
4. When were the settlements made in the Connecticut Valley? Where? By whom?
5. Who started the first English settlement in Rhode Island?
6. To whom was the country north and east of Massachusetts granted? What was this country called? When did Maine become part of Massachusetts?
7. What caused the Pequot War? Give an account of it.
8. What laws were passed in England that were unjust to the colonies?
9. When did New Netherland become an English colony?
10. What was the cause of King Philip's War? Give an account of it.
11. When did the Massachusetts Bay Company lose its charter? Why?
12. Whom did Charles II send over as governor of the New England colonies?
13. What was meant by the Salem Witchcraft?

CHAPTER VIII

THE ENGLISH IN MARYLAND AND OTHER COLONIES

168. Lord Baltimore; his Newfoundland Colony. — In 1621, King James I gave an estate in Ireland, called Baltimore, to George Calvert, who for this reason was called Lord Baltimore. Two years later the king gave him a tract of land in Newfoundland. But as there was no use in trying to make a colony so far north, in 1629, Calvert wrote to James's son, Charles I, who was then king, and asked for land near the Jamestown settlement, where the climate was mild.

169. An English Catholic Colony. — Calvert was a Catholic and had many strong friends among the Catholics of England, who had been persecuted in that country by the Protestants for many years. Charles I promised him the grant for which he had asked. The name of the king's wife was Henrietta Maria, and in her honor the new colony was called Maryland.

While Maryland was a Catholic colony, and a refuge for persecuted Catholics, people of all beliefs were welcome there. Maryland was the first English colony where people could follow any religion they pleased.

The grant made to Calvert lay on the north side of the Potomac River, from its source to its mouth and north of a line extending from that point, across the bay to the ocean. This gave Calvert both sides of the upper half of Chesapeake Bay, as far north as the fortieth parallel of latitude.

It was not until 1632, after George Calvert's death, that

the grant was made to his son Cecil, who was the second Lord Baltimore, and the first Proprietor of Maryland.

Maryland had a government different from that of Virginia, on the other side of the Potomac. Cecil Calvert was the owner, and he could govern as the owner of a farm could control things about his place. He could make laws, set up courts, pardon convicts, issue coins, and in all things do much as a king might. Such colonies were called propri-



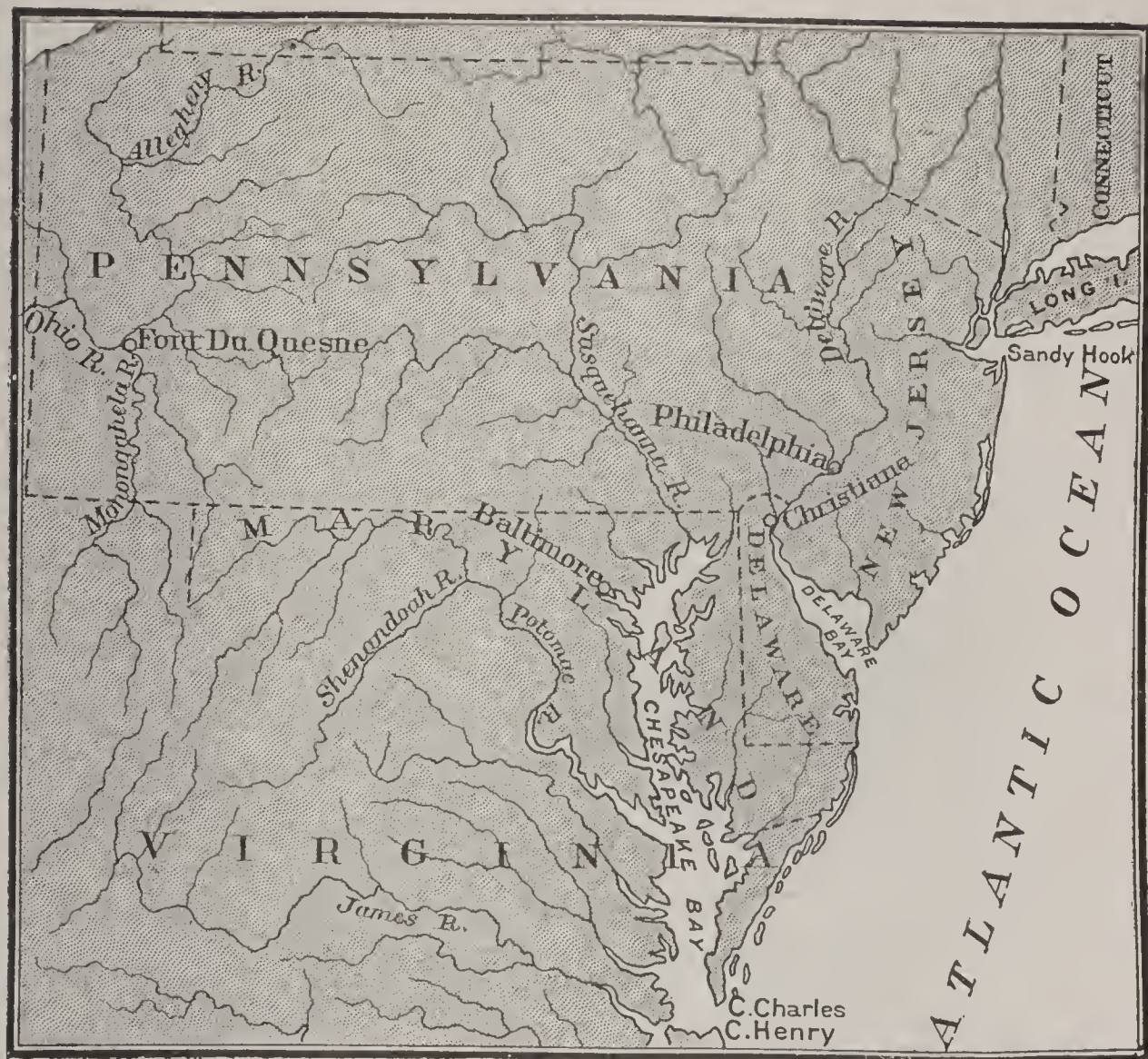
A MARYLAND SHILLING

etary colonies, because they belonged to owners or proprietors. Of course, the owners and all under them were subject to the king. Calvert sent two Indian arrows each year to the

king, to show that he held himself to be one of the king's loyal subjects.

170. Settlement of Maryland. — The first settlement was made in 1634, when two ships from England, with over three hundred people, sailed up Chesapeake Bay. They landed at a place which was called St. Mary's. Lord Baltimore was not with these settlers, but in his stead he sent his brother, Leonard Calvert. At once, the building of houses and the planting of fields began. The Indians were friendly, for they were well treated, and the friendship was never broken.

The people of Virginia were much displeased to have the new colony settle where it did. They claimed that the Maryland grant took land which belonged to the Jamestown colony. Indeed, there were Virginia people already living within its bounds and trading there. James I, the father of King



PENNSYLVANIA, MARYLAND, DELAWARE, AND NEW JERSEY

Charles I, had taken away the Virginia charter. Otherwise, the Maryland grant could not have been made; and the Virginians had expected to have their old charter back at the hands of King Charles. They now saw that there was no hope of getting back the Maryland country.

171. Claiborne's Rebellion. — Among the Virginians was a planter, William Claiborne, who used to go with others to Kent Island, in Chesapeake Bay, to trade with the Indians. He had a small trading post there, and although Kent Island was a part of Maryland, he would not give it up. He

declared that the Maryland people must keep away from that island. The Virginians and those living in Maryland before Baltimore's settlers came, sided with Claiborne, and there was sharp fighting before the matter was settled. It ended in Kent Island remaining a part of Maryland under Baltimore's rule.

172. Religious Differences. — Many Puritans driven from Virginia and some Church of England people went to Mary-



BALTIMORE IN 1752

land and settled where the city of Annapolis now stands. These Puritans were very troublesome in the early days of Maryland. They had been sent out of Virginia because they would not conform to the usages and ceremonies of the Church of England. In Maryland they continued to stir up trouble by opposing the government of Lord Baltimore. In 1649, the Toleration Act was passed, which provided for freedom of religious worship. A few years later the Puritan party succeeded in securing the repeal of the Toleration Act and began a bitter persecution of Catholics, who were denied

the right to vote, hold office, or worship in public. In 1692, during the reign of King William III, the authority of the Church of England was established in Maryland. After the people of Maryland had wrangled among themselves for many years, King William III made the colony a royal province in 1692.

173. The Baltimores again; Mason and Dixon. — In 1715, under the fifth Lord Baltimore, Maryland again became a proprietary colony and so remained until the Revolution. The city of Baltimore was not laid out until 1729. There was a dispute for many years between Maryland and Pennsylvania about the boundary line between the two colonies. This dispute was finally (1767) settled, when the boundary line between the two colonies was fixed by two surveyors, Mason and Dixon. This boundary, known as Mason and Dixon's line, was about three hundred miles in length and later marked the division between the slave and the free states.

Except for the many quarrels among the people, Maryland was always prosperous, for there were many waterways, and the climate and soil were good. The chief crops were corn and tobacco.

174. The English in Pennsylvania; the Quakers. — While the Puritans were fighting Charles I in England, a sect grew up there which others called Quakers, while they called themselves Friends. The first Quakers were simple people of the lower classes, but their beliefs were such that many joined them.



A QUAKER OF THE
17TH CENTURY

They were not only opposed to the ways of the Church of England, but were also Separatists from all churches. Because they thought it wrong, they would not take an oath when called to court as witnesses. They held that in the sight of God one person is just as good as another, so they would not take their hats off to any one, not even to the king. They would

not go to law, even though wrong were done them. Though no braver people ever lived, they would not fight, even to defend themselves. Their dress was very plain and simple.



WILLIAM PENN AT 22

175. William Penn. —

Among the friends of King Charles I was Admiral Penn, who had won from the Spanish for England the Island of Jamaica. He had a son William who at col-

lege happened to meet Quakers, and became one himself. After that, he did not obey the rules of the college, and his father was very angry with him. But William Penn was very much in earnest, and he kept on preaching the simple faith of the Friends. In England thousands of them were thrown into prison. They began to go to the colonies in America. But wherever they went, they were abused. They were whipped, imprisoned, tortured, and sometimes hanged. In Boston, four Quakers were thus put to death. William Penn and other rich Quakers bought the western part of New Jersey, and made a settlement which is now the city of Burlington.

176. Pennsylvania.—Encouraged by the growth of the Burlington colony, Penn sought another place where a Quaker settlement could be planted. His father was now dead, and the king owed a large sum of money to Penn, as the heir of the admiral. In payment Penn asked the king to give him a tract of land in America. The king agreed to this, and in 1681 gave him forty-eight thousand square miles of land, known as Pennsylvania. The land fronted on the Delaware River north of Maryland and Delaware, and ran westward a great distance.



REDUCED FACSIMILE OF PART OF THE ROYAL DEED GIVEN TO PENN

Penn made a treaty with the Indians, whom he used so well that he never had any trouble with them. His great landhold was a place to which suffering Quakers could flee for peace and safety. In the charter of Pennsylvania, which he himself wrote, he declared that all men who suffered abuse for their religion, no matter what it was, could come there and be free. He was under the charter the proprietor of Pennsylvania, and the owner of the land, but he left the government to the settlers to be carried on by a council and assembly, chosen by themselves.

The laws were mild and fair. One was that no one should make fun of another for his religious faith. Another was that every child should learn a trade. Indians charged with crimes, should be tried by jury. To make sure that there

would be fair play, half of the jury were to be Indians. Yet another was that prisons should be for the reform of criminals instead of mere places of punishment.

177. Philadelphia. — In 1682, Penn chose a site for a town, with the Delaware on the front and the Schuylkill at the rear. The streets ran from river to river, crossed at right angles by other streets so that there were many squares. He named the town Philadelphia, a word which means City of Brotherly Love. At first the houses were rudely built, the better ones being of hewn logs. Many did not have houses during the first winter, but lived in caves dug in the high bank along the river.

No other city in the colonies grew so rapidly as Philadelphia. About thirty vessels came there the first year with settlers. It soon became the greatest city in English America, and was such for a hundred years.

178. Germans come to Pennsylvania. — In Penn's time, there were many people in Germany who, while not Quakers, were still very much like them in their beliefs. They knew Penn, for he had preached among them, and when they heard of his colony, they flocked to it. There was a time in later years when fully a third of the people of Pennsylvania were Germans. One company of Germans, skilled in making linen, came and settled near Philadelphia. They called their place Germantown. From that day, Germantown has been a center for cloth making. Long ago Philadelphia spread out and surrounded it, so that it is now a part of that great city.

179. Trouble with the New King. — After James II was driven from the throne, Penn was charged with being friendly to him, and was removed as governor of Pennsylvania, but two years later, control was given back to him.

Penn died in 1718, and his sons were then owners of the colony. They were not as just in their dealings with the people as their father had been, and there were many disputes, until Pennsylvania became one of the United States, and as a State bought the interests of the Penns.



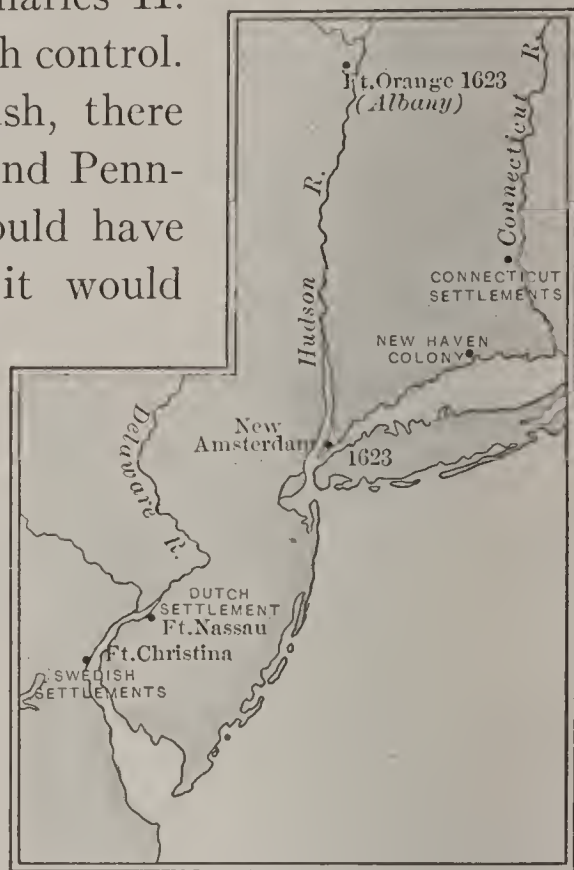
FIRST TOWN HALL AND COURT HOUSE IN PHILADELPHIA

180. The English in Delaware. — The first lasting settlements in what we know as Delaware were made by the Swedes in 1638. The Dutch had made a settlement seven years before that, but the Indians drove them away. The present city of Wilmington is the outgrowth of the Swedish settlement made there, which the people named, for their queen, Christina. They called the country about Christina, New Sweden, and they lived for many miles along the Delaware.

The settlement was within the bounds of New Netherland, and in less than twenty years after its founding it was cap-

tured by the Dutch, who sent a fleet from New Amsterdam for that purpose. Thus the colony was under the Dutch from 1655 to 1664, when it was taken from the Dutch by the English, by order of King Charles II. Thenceforth it was under English control.

As soon as it became English, there was strife between Maryland and Pennsylvania as to which colony should have it. Penn wanted it because it would give to Pennsylvania a sea front, which was badly needed, while Maryland wanted it because it would square out the colony. Penn got it at last, mainly because he was a friend of the king and because he could pay for it, and thus it became really a part of Pennsylvania. Up to that time it had been known as the "Three Counties on the Delaware." Penn called it the "Territories of Pennsylvania."



MAP SHOWING EARLY DUTCH AND SWEDISH SETTLEMENTS

After some years, the people of Delaware had something to say for themselves in the matter. The result was that Delaware had a governor of its own for a while. But in 1693, the little colony was again joined to Pennsylvania, and it remained so for ten years. Another change then made Delaware in part a colony by itself, though under the governor of Pennsylvania. It so remained until both Pennsylvania and Delaware became States of our nation.

181. The Carolinas. — South of Virginia the surface of

the land is much as it is in Virginia. There is the same long, low slope of soil, which continues from the rise of the mountains to the sea and far under it. Along the coast are many low islands formed by the action of the ocean, which carved them out from the sandy soil that had once been part of the mainland. Roanoke Island, where Raleigh's colony failed, was one of these.

182. Duke of Albemarle. — In 1663, Charles II gave this area south of Virginia to some of his friends. One of them was the Duke of Albemarle. He gave them much such ownership and control of the country, as his father years before had given to Calvert over Maryland, and as he had given to Penn over Pennsylvania. The name given to the Albemarle grant was Carolina.

There were some settlers in Carolina when the king gave it to the Duke of Albemarle and his friends, and they formed a colony which was called Albemarle. Soon afterward more colonists came and settled on the bay at the mouth of Cape Fear River. This settlement was called Clarendon.

183. The Model Government. — The owners of Carolina tried a new plan of government which they called the *Grand Model*. A set of laws was made which put all power in the hands of a few nobles and left the common people little better than slaves. They could not vote or own land. The laborers living on a great plantation were not allowed to leave it. If the plantation was sold, they were sold with it, and had



AN ENGLISH CAVALIER OF
THE 17TH CENTURY

to obey the new owner. The whole plan was foolish and the people overthrew it.

184. Charleston. — In a few years, people came from England and settled on a tongue of land between the Ashley and the Cooper rivers. This settlement was named for the king — Charles town. Years afterward, the settlement was moved a few miles to a better place, and the name became Charlestown. In our time the place is known as the city of Charleston.

185. Tar, Turpentine and Other Products. — Beginning in Virginia, there is a strip of yellow pine forest many miles wide which runs through the Carolinas and across Georgia parallel to the coast for hundreds of miles. In the days of the settlement of those states, it was the most valuable pine forest in the world. It is there still, though it has been worked even to this day for lumber, tar, pitch, and turpentine. The early settlers found this pine forest a means of earning their living, and many came to the Carolinas, and later to Georgia, because of it. Besides the making of pine-tree products, the growing of tobacco was an important business, and after a while the raising of rice and cotton became the great business of Georgia and the Carolinas, as the growing of tobacco was of Virginia.

186. Rice, Indigo, and Cotton. Negro Slavery. — Charleston has always been the leading port of the Carolinas. One day a ship came into that port from Africa, and the captain gave a friend a small lot of rice, which he had brought across the sea, to be planted. The soil and climate were suitable for raising rice, and Carolina rice has been considered the best in the world. Its growth has spread along the seacoast slope to Texas, where great quantities are grown every year.

Nearly fifty years afterward it was found that indigo grew

well in the Carolinas, and that became a great and paying crop. Indigo was once one of the most valuable of dyes. But chemists have found how to make the dye without the plant, so it is no longer grown.

Later still it was found that the low sandy islands along the coast, and many of the low flats of the mainland near the sea produced the best cotton in the world. The famous sea-island cotton of the Carolinas is known everywhere.

As the people began growing rice, indigo, and cotton, there was need for field-workers who could stand the very hot weather of the Carolina summers. White men could not, so negroes were brought from Africa and sold as slaves. The slave trade was a money-making business for many years, and ships belonging to the ports of the colonies along the coast, from Salem to Charleston, brought cargo after cargo of them. At length, there were more negro slaves along the lowlands of the Carolinas than there were white people.

In 1729, King George II bought out the owners of the colony and made two provinces of it, North Carolina and South Carolina. They remained royal provinces until about fifty years later they became States of our Union.

187. The English in Georgia. — There had been for many years trouble between the people of the Carolinas and the Spanish of Florida, over claims to the country that lay between them, and Indian war upon the settlers had come from the schemes of the Spanish in the South. The king of England, George II, felt the need of a new colony south of South Carolina to keep the Spaniards from coming north, as the Massachusetts and New York colonies had kept the French from coming south.

Times were hard in England, and her jails were full of men who were shut up because they could not pay their

debts. In those days the law was very cruel to such unlucky people. To be thrown into jail for debt was often to be put into prison for life.

188. Oglethorpe. — There was a man in England whose heart went out to the poor debtors. He wanted to do some-



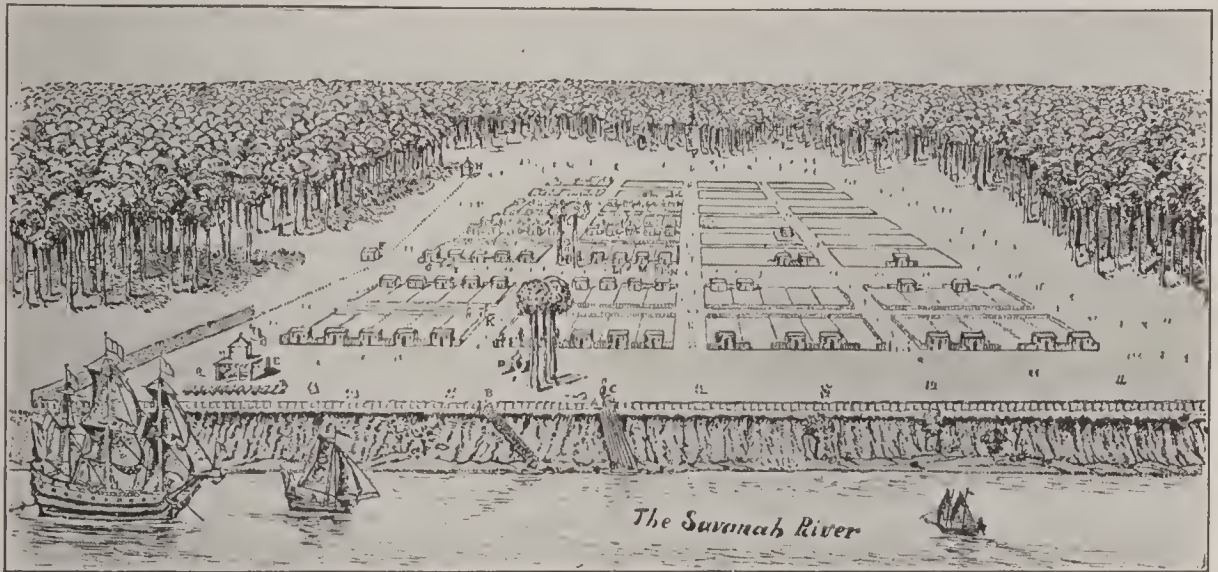
KING'S BENCH PRISON, LONDON

A poor debtor's prison of the eighteenth century

thing to help them. He was a member of Parliament, and the king was his friend. His name was Oglethorpe. He said to the king that he would form a colony south of South Carolina to bar the Spanish. He would bring there such poor debtors as were set free from English jails. The king and Parliament favored this plan, and the colony was founded. The king gave the land, and Parliament gave a large sum of money. It was named for the king, Georgia. This was the last colony planted in America by the English.

189. Savannah. — In 1733, a settlement was made at Savannah, in the heart of the country claimed by the Spaniards. Forts were built, and soon the king sent some Scotch Highlander soldiers to serve in them. Then Augusta was settled, and people began to come to other points.

Oglethorpe was strongly opposed to drunkenness and slavery and he would have no liquors or slaves in Georgia.



EARLY SAVANNAH, GEORGIA

From a London print dated 1741

He said that liquor made fools of men, and that slavery robbed white men of a chance to work and made them idle. He knew how idleness had led to crime, misery, and death in Virginia a century before. The settlement of Georgia, like that of Maryland and Pennsylvania, was intended for the good of the oppressed and persecuted, yet no Roman Catholics were allowed to live in the colony.

As Roger Williams and Calvert and Penn had done, Oglethorpe bought the land from the Indians and made friends with them. The good intent of Oglethorpe in founding his colony gained for it the friendship of many of the best people of England.

190. Trouble with the Spaniards. — The Spanish of Florida were not willing to give up the land which the English king had turned over to Oglethorpe and there was more or less fighting between the Georgia people and the Spanish for years, but at length Florida was given to England by Spain, at the end of the French and Indian War, and after that there was no more trouble of that kind.

191. Slavery. — Oglethorpe's plan of government, however, was a failure, owing to the fact that the proprietor would not consent to the employment of slave labor. Settlement after settlement was abandoned for this reason, as white men could not work in the fields on account of the extreme heat. At length slaves were employed in the cotton and tobacco fields.

It was noticed that mulberry trees grew in Georgia, and that they might make silk the settlers brought silkworms to feed on the leaves. Large lots of it were sent to England, and the queen wore a dress made of Georgia silk. But the people found that they could make money faster in raising cotton, tobacco, and rice, and silk-making was, after many years, given up.

In 1752, Georgia became a province of England, and so remained until it became one of the United States.

SUMMARY

1. George Calvert, first Lord Baltimore, was granted a tract of land in Newfoundland in 1623 by James I.
2. Calvert later (1629) asked Charles I for a grant of land near Jamestown. This was made (1632), and his son Cecil Calvert, second Lord Baltimore, sent colonists to Chesapeake Bay in 1634. They founded the colony of Maryland.
3. William Claiborne interfered with the Maryland colonists by claiming Kent Island, which was within the limits of the colony.
4. The colony of Pennsylvania was started by settlers who were sent over by William Penn. The colonists started the building of Philadelphia in 1682.

5. The Swedes settled Delaware in 1638.
6. The land south of Virginia was granted to the Duke of Albemarle and others by King Charles II in 1663. This tract was called Carolina.
7. North and South Carolina were made two separate provinces in 1729.
8. Georgia was settled in 1732.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. To whom was a grant of land in Newfoundland made in 1623? By whom?
2. When did English colonists land in Chesapeake Bay to found what is now Maryland? To whom was this grant made? By whom?
3. Give an account of Claiborne's Rebellion.
4. When was the colony of Pennsylvania started? By whom? When did the colonists begin to build the city of Philadelphia? In what sect was William Penn interested?
5. By whom was Delaware first permanently settled? When? Who conquered the Swedes? How long did the Dutch hold Delaware? Who gained control after the Dutch?
6. When was the grant of Carolina made? By whom?
7. When were North and South Carolina formed as two separate provinces?
8. What was the last colony to be established? Who was its founder? Why was Oglethorpe's plan of government a failure?



JAMES EDWARD OGLETHORPE
After the painting by Ravenet

CHAPTER IX

ENGLISH AMERICA AND HOW IT WAS HELD

192. Early English Settlers kept to the Coast. — For many years England cared little about the country far back from the coast. There was good land there and plenty of forests, and mines might be found in the mountains. It was well known where the Alleghany Mountains were. But there were no roads by which to get goods out, so of what use was it to go far back from the sea into the mountains, or beyond them, to raise crops or dig iron or make lumber?

Thus it was that, in 1689, the English had on the Atlantic slope of the Alleghany Mountains more than enough land for their needs and they were making use of only the part near the coast. They would have built mills at the falls, but the home laws that forbade the making of goods in America prevented such enterprise. Ports from which to send out vessels, and land to till for crops to load the vessels, were all of America that the English settlers could use as yet. If a colonist traveled west, he first toiled over the mountains and then went down the farther slope, into a beautiful country. The French claimed that region. The English saw, however, that in time to come the land beyond the mountains might support a great English people, and they meant to keep it.

193. King George's War. — After Queen Anne's death there was a line of kings of England, who were German. George I was followed by George II. So thoroughly German were

they that neither of them could speak good English. During the reign of King George II, in 1744, war with the French again broke out. Again the French set the Indians on the English settlers, many of whom they murdered. Roused to fury by these murders by Indians led by French officers, the



A PIONEER HOUSE IN KENTUCKY

New Englanders again attacked the French, and this time they took Louisburg, which the French thought would withstand the world. At the close of the war, England gave it back to France by the treaty of 1748. The siege of Louisburg taught the English colonists to fight, and to know that they could fight — things which afterward became important.

194. English America at the Close of King George's War. — By this time the settlers had spread out from the Atlantic coast to the head waters of the rivers. They had not gone far away from the streams, for the boat was the great means of travel. There were as yet few roads. Some rovers had crossed the mountains, but not many. There were a few

settlers in what is now Kentucky and Tennessee. There were about a million and a quarter of people in the settlements, two thirds of whom came from England, Ireland, and Scotland. One fifth of the people were negro slaves, most of whom lived south of Pennsylvania. While the colonies were British only, three fourths of the white people in them were British. The rest were Germans, French, Dutch, Swedes, and Negroes.

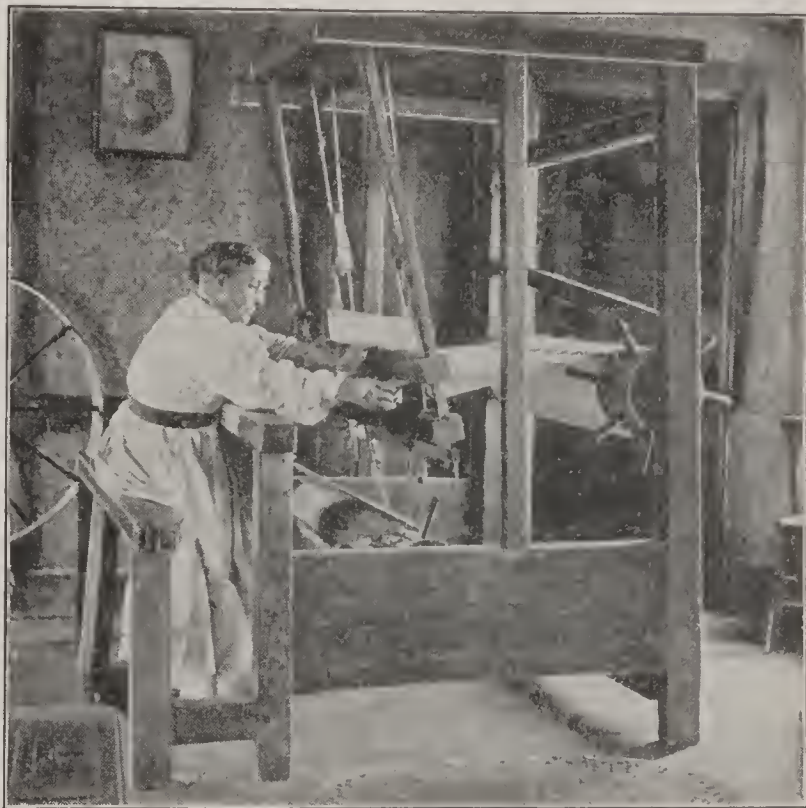
There was not much travel between the colonies, hence the people of each knew but little about the others. The colonies were somewhat jealous of one another, perhaps because of this lack of acquaintance.

195. Industries. — The New England forests were full of excellent ship timber, and the coast had many fine harbors, so the people there were largely engaged in shipbuilding. Their vessels were useful for trade with the West Indies and other lands. They shipped a great deal of lumber. White pine, of the best grade, was then plentiful from Rhode Island to Maine. The best white pine trees were reserved by the English government for masts for the royal navy.

A day's work was from sunrise to sunset, and often in winter more than that. Wages were very low, not more than one fourth as high as they now are for shorter days of work.

There were tanneries in New England for making leather, and distilleries for making rum. Molasses from the West Indies was made into rum, which was sent to Africa and exchanged for negroes. The negroes were sold as slaves in the colonies and in the West Indies. The slave trade was a money-making business in those days. Nearly everybody North and South, except the Quakers, thought slavery was right.

The people of New England sent out many ships to catch whales. They found them in Long Island Sound and in Hudson Bay. Paying but little attention to the English Navigation Laws, they also sent trading ships to all parts of the world. In some years, as many as two hundred vessels were built in New England. The New Englanders as a rule became fishermen, shipbuilders, or merchants. Those who tilled the soil made their own farm implements.

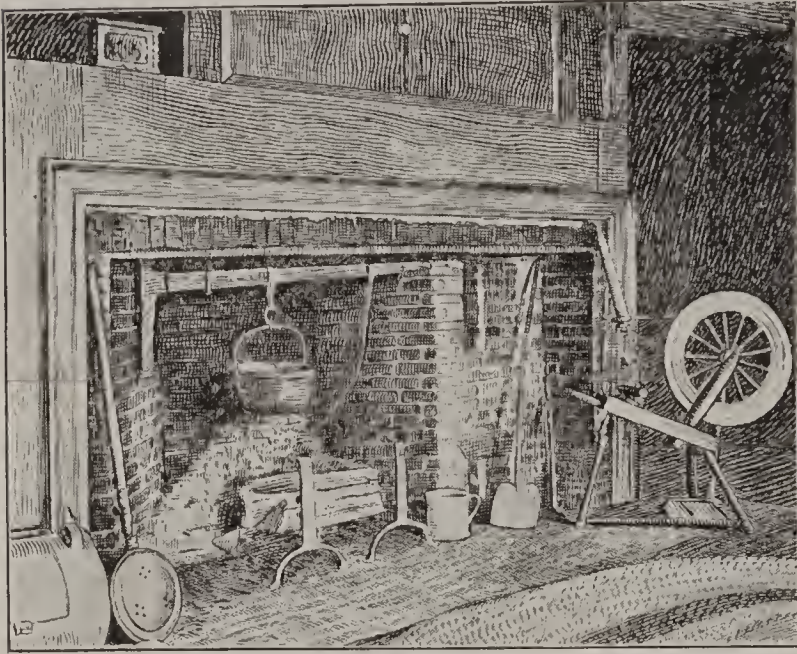


AN OLD-FASHIONED LOOM

196. Slaves. — The keeping of slaves never paid as well in the Northern colonies as in the South, so there never was as much of it. About one tenth of the people of New York and less than that in New England were negro slaves. In the South there were nearly as many slaves as white people and in South Carolina, more.

197. Clothing. — In the early days of the colonies, most of the comforts of life were unknown. Such cloth as was used was woven on hand looms. It was made from threads of flax or wool, for cotton was hardly known. The flax was grown upon the farm, and the wool was cut from sheep that fed in the home pastures. Both the flax and the wool were carded and spun into threads by hand. There were no fac-

tories for the making of cloth. The women of the household were kept very busy providing the garments of the family. Such a thing as knitting or sewing by machine had never



A COLONIAL KITCHEN

been heard of. All the machinery then used in the making of stockings, was four knitting needles. The rich people had cloth, trimmings, and finery brought from England. The workmen made much use of leather for breeches, and for aprons to protect

their clothes when laboring.

198. Heating and Cooking. — Stoves were unknown in the early colonial days. Rooms were warmed by means of fireplaces, and in these the cooking was done. There was a swinging bar in the fireplace, called a crane, from which kettles hung, so that the water in them might boil from the fire below on the hearth. There were also kettles with long legs, that were placed over live coals. In them meat was boiled. Some were so deep that meat could be roasted or bread baked in them. Others had covers into which live coals could be put in order to throw the heat downward. Thus there could be fire both above and below whatever was being cooked. Most of the bread was baked in a brick oven. A fierce wood fire was kept in it until the thick walls had taken up much heat. Then the coals and

ashes were brushed out, the dough put in, in proper dishes, and the door closed. The heat from the brick walls baked the dough into bread.

There were no matches. When people went to bed, they dug a hole in the ashes on the hearth, and in it put live coals, covering them carefully.

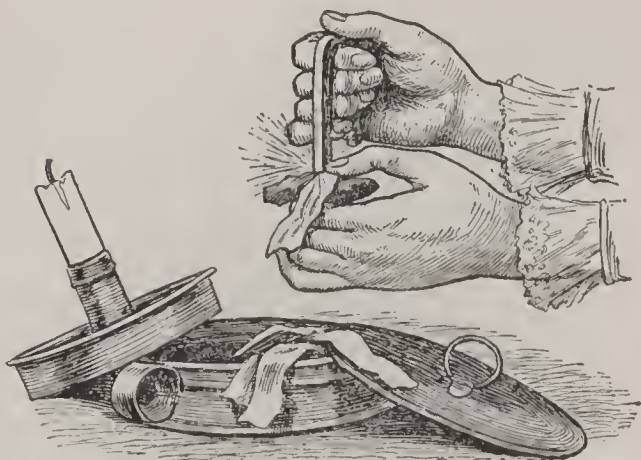
In the morning, these were raked out still smoldering.

Then kindlings were laid over them, and by blowing the coals with the bellows a flame was soon started. If the fire went out, one of the boys was sent to a neighbor's "to borrow fire,"

which was brought home, as live coals, in a dish covered with ashes. If fire could not be borrowed, a blaze was started by means of flint and steel. Very dry scrapings of old wood, bark, or linen, called tinder, were made ready, a piece of flint was struck on steel, until a spark fell on the tinder and started it to smoldering. From this a fire was started with the bellows.

For dishes, wood was used, though there were, among those who could afford them, many pewter plates.

199. Houses. — The houses were mostly made of logs hewn square and laid one above the other, with the spaces between them filled with clay. Very few bricks were used, and these were brought from across the sea. The roofs were of long split shingles. Sometimes, long grass or straw so laid that the rain would follow down the slope without wetting through, was used for roofing. Such roofs were called thatched roofs. Few houses had board floors. The bare earth trodden hard



TINDER BOX, FLINT, AND STEEL

served as a floor. A house with glass windows was not often seen. Glass was very costly then. Paper well greased was used instead. It let in the light fairly well, much as ground glass does in our day. For light in the evening, candles were used and after 1750, lamps, filled with whale oil.



LOG HOUSES OF EARLY SETTLERS

200. Religion. — Since England was a Protestant country, most people who came from there to America were Protestants. These were mainly of two kinds: those belonging to the Church of England, or to the Episcopal church; and Puritans, or those of the Congregational church. In most of the colonies, the English government supported and enforced the Episcopal church service. Catholics, Quakers, and people of other beliefs, were at times badly treated in all the colonies, except Pennsylvania and Rhode Island.

201. Education. — As a rule, the people were in favor of schools and of the spreading of knowledge by means of print-

ing, and this was especially true in New England. In those colonies, there were free public schools as early as 1647, and it was thought disgraceful for children not to know how to read and write and cipher. There were a few public schools in New Jersey and Pennsylvania, but none in Virginia and the other Southern colonies. Except in New York and New England there was no public school system in the colonies until after the Revolutionary War.



A DAME SCHOOL

202. The French prepare for War. — After King George's War, the French had their plans and knew that peace would not last. One great effort was to be made to crush England, and the French were preparing for it. They built forts to hold the Ohio and Mississippi valleys. They worked hard because they saw that English fur-traders were crossing the mountains and getting into the Ohio River country. By 1730, to be ready for the war whenever it might come, the French had more than sixty of these forts and had made treaties with many of the Indian tribes.

The French country was very thinly peopled; the English country was small, but it was ten times as thickly settled as that of the French. The French were not growing up with the country as the English were.

203. The English begin to take the Ohio Valley. — It was now nearly a hundred and fifty years since the English came

to America and they had begun to value the land that lay beyond the mountains. Trappers and hunters had come back from their trips, again and again, to tell of the wonderful country they had seen. Then the colonists began to remember that the grants from England to the colonies, in times past, were for land stretching across the continent, and they felt, as the English at home did, that it was time to begin to use it.

In 1748, the Ohio Land Company was formed in Virginia, to take up land beyond the mountains in the valley of the Ohio, and to trade with the Indians in that country. King George II gave it a grant of six hundred thousand acres. Well might the French expect war, when the English king was giving away the best land in the country they called their own, and when English traders were trying to get the fur trade away from them.

Two years later, the Ohio Company sent some men across the mountains to survey the land and set up boundary marks. They went as far as the place on the Ohio River where Louisville now stands. The French heard of this move and took steps to put a stop to it. They sent a party which made prisoners of the surveyors. They also broke up a trading post that the English had made.

To Dinwiddie, the governor of Virginia, the land company complained of what the French had done. In 1753, he sent out a young man named George Washington, who was an officer of the militia, to investigate and report. There was need of haste, so, though it was winter, young Washington set out at once. He traveled over mountains, through thick forests and swamps, and across rivers, which at that season were raging torrents full of broken ice. He had hundreds of miles to go. His errand was to order the French

away, to learn just what they were doing, and to make friends with the Indians.

The best way, in those days, to get to the Ohio River country from the east was to follow the Ohio downstream from where it begins. The best way to reach the Ohio River was to strike the Allegheny River, which flows south, or the Monongahela, which flows north, and follow the current to the place where the two rivers come together to form the Ohio. Both the English and the



GOVERNOR DINWIDDIE OF VIRGINIA

French knew that the meeting point of these two rivers was the most important place in that country. Each knew that the one who held it could keep the other out of the Ohio Valley beyond. Washington, when he returned to Virginia, told Governor Dinwiddie and the Land Company that they ought to build a fort there as soon as possible; for if they did not, the French would.

Soon afterward, a party was sent from Virginia to build the fort. But before they had half finished it, the French came down the Allegheny River in boats, drove them away, and completed the fort, which they named Fort Duquesne.

204. The French and Indian War. — Fearing such a move by the French, Virginia had sent a regiment to hold the fort that was being built by the company's men. Washington, though not its commander, was with the regiment. Runners

who had started east with the news of what the French had done; met the Virginia force not far away, and told what had happened. Then Washington, with a number of men,



Painting by Chas. W. Peale.

GEORGE WASHINGTON AT THE AGE OF THIRTY

In the Uniform of Virginia Colonel

pushed ahead.

He had not gone far, when he came to a party of French soldiers who had heard of the Virginians, and who, like his own party, were out to see what was happening. The French acted as though they meant to fight, and without waiting further, Washington fired on them and killed some of them.

The French

leader was among those who fell. Thus, May 28, 1754, began the war between the English and the French, that was to settle which should give way to the other in America. The part of the war that was fought in America, is known in history as the French and Indian War, because it was fought by the French and the Indians against the English.

The French were in strong force at Fort Duquesne, and

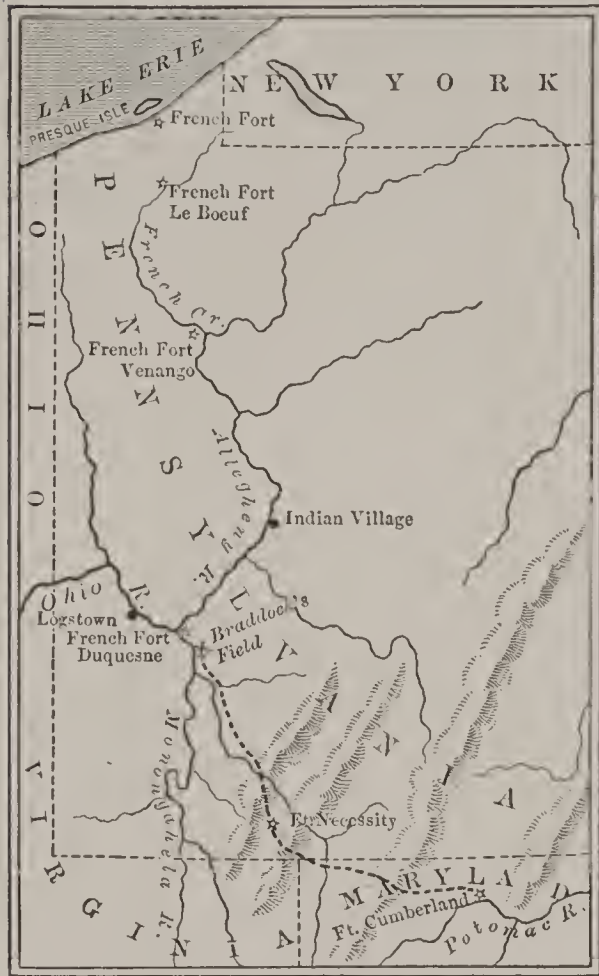
when they heard of the fight and the death of their officer, they sent several hundred men to attack the Virginians who had turned back. Washington, who was now in command, fell back and built a stockade, intending to wait there for the wagons that were on their way with supplies. The wagons did not come, and the soldiers suffered so much from hunger that he called his camp Fort Necessity. The French and Indians were more than double his force, and when they surrounded his stockade, he surrendered. But before doing so, he made the French agree that he and his men might return to Virginia with their arms.

205. Franklin tries to form a Union. — There was in Philadelphia, at that time, a man of New England birth, who was long-headed and wise. This was shown later when he proved to be one of the greatest statesmen in America. His name was Benjamin Franklin. He had read of the good effects of the old New England Confederation, under which the colonies had helped each other so much, and he proposed that all the colonies should form a Union, under which to fight the French. The Union was to be headed by a President, who was to have considerable power. But the colonies were too jealous of one another to make such a union. If they had favored it, it could not have been carried out, because England would not consent.

206. General Braddock. — In 1755, England sent one of her bravest soldiers, General Edward Braddock, to America with two regiments. These were troops that had done brave fighting in wars in Europe. When England sent Braddock, France sent a fleet to America with a force of troops under command of General Dieskau. It chanced that very early in the war, Braddock and Dieskau were killed.

Knowing of the sailing of the French fleet, England

sent out a fleet, under Admiral Boscawen, to fight it. He met the French fleet off Newfoundland and gave it battle. He took three ships, and would have destroyed all the French vessels, had not a fog come up, under cover of which they escaped.



ROUTE OF BRADDOCK'S EXPEDITION

Gen. Braddock thought he knew all about fighting, and so he did, about the kind that was done in Europe. But the French and the Americans had learned from the Indians ways of fighting that the soldiers of Europe did not understand.

Braddock said he would make short work of any French and Indian skulkers that might come before his trained regulars.

His first move was to march to the west, to take Fort Duquesne. George Washington was one of his aides. Braddock's troops started from Alexandria, which is now a little town near where the city of Washington has since grown. When Braddock set out for the Ohio River, Dieskau with an army came south from Canada to Lake George.

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207. Braddock's Defeat. — Major George Washington urged Braddock to push on, with as great speed as possible, so that they might reach Fort Duquesne before the French could get ready to fight. But Braddock would take no advice

from those whom he and his gaudy officers called Virginia countrymen. He made his men march over mountains and through woods and swamps as though they were on parade. He wasted weeks in making roads and smoothing the way for his troops. His progress was slow for want of wagons and horses. But Benjamin Franklin came forward and saved the undertaking by pledging his own fortune to the Pennsylvania farmers in payment for teams that they supplied.

Braddock went on, and after many days drew near Fort Duquesne. He should have



BRADDOCK SURPRISED BY AN AMBUSCADE

kept scouts ahead to see if the enemy was before him, but he did not do this. When the column was within ten miles of the fort, and as the men were pushing their way through the forest, the attack came. The Indian war whoop sounded, and bullets began to pour on the poor English soldiers, from the underbrush on either side. From behind trees and rocks, and out of little gullies, came the deadly

rain of lead, while the bewildered soldiers could scarcely see the enemy.

The Virginians did as their foe did. They each took a tree, a log, or a hole in the ground for cover, and with only their heads in sight, peered out for the enemy. The British soldiers, if they had been allowed to do so, would have fought, each for himself. But their officers made them stand in line. The French and the Indians picked them off, one by one, until such as were still alive broke ranks and fled.

Braddock was brave, but it is of no use to be brave, if bravery and folly go together. He was badly wounded, and died soon after the fight. Two horses were shot under Washington and four bullets went through his clothes.

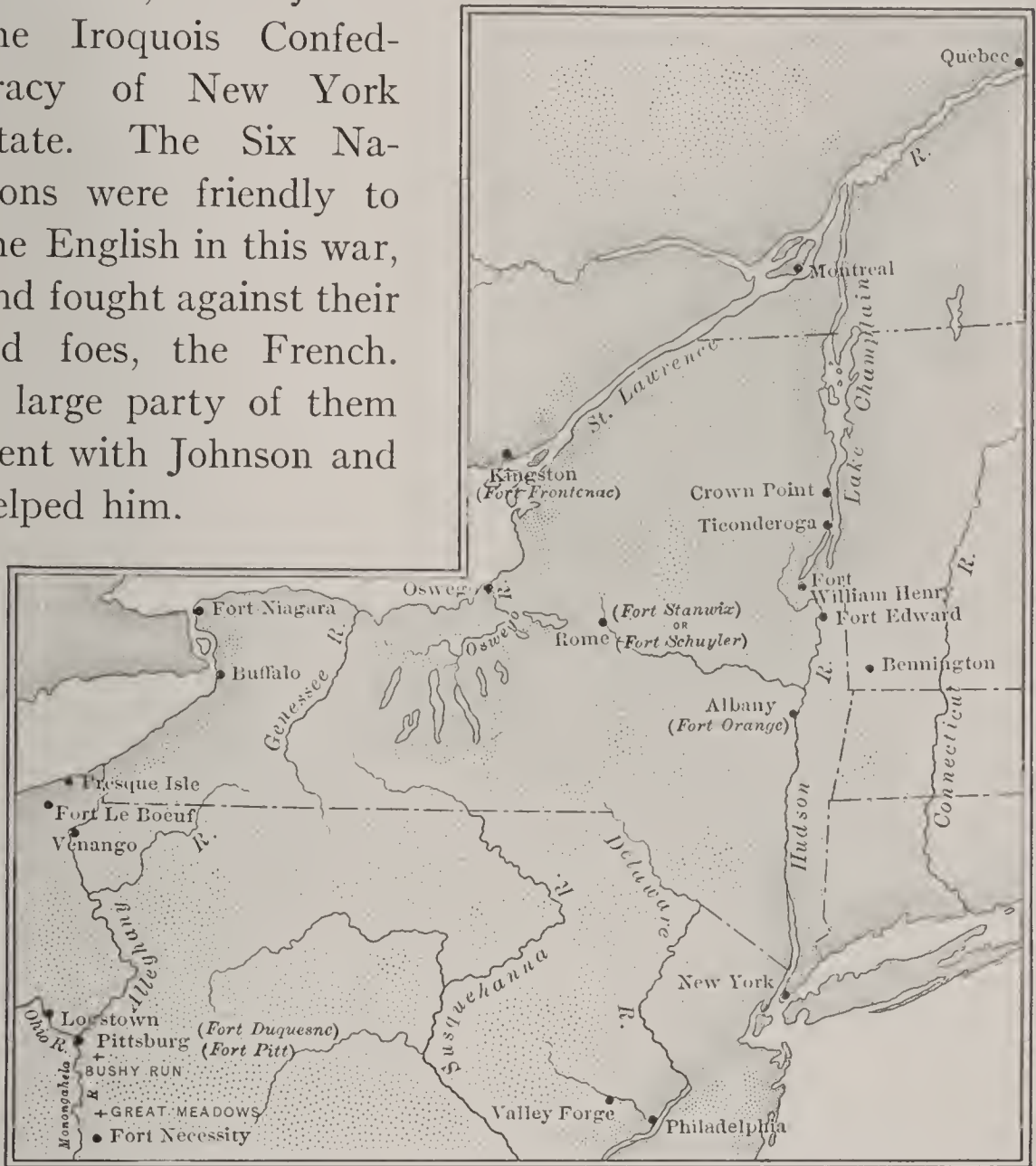
The few of Braddock's army who were left retreated to Philadelphia. The Indians followed, and, for a long time, ravaged the villages and farms in the western part of Virginia, Maryland, and Pennsylvania.

One of the English plans had failed. Another had been made, which was to advance on Canada at the same time that Braddock went to the Ohio. This was to be done by going north through Lake Champlain. To do this, the French fort at Crown Point on the lake must be taken.

208. Johnson's Victory at Lake George. — There was a battle near the head of Lake George in which the English, under General Johnson, won a victory. The French under Dieskau came from Crown Point to meet the English, and were driven back. In the fight, Dieskau got his death wound. This was a few weeks after Braddock's defeat.

General William Johnson was an Irishman who owned a great tract of land in the Mohawk Valley, where he carried on a large fur trade, and was very friendly with the Mohawk Indians. He had married the daughter of a Mohawk

chief. The Mohawks were one of the Five Nations, or more correctly the Six Nations, for the Tuscaroras from the Carolinas, had joined the Iroquois Confederacy of New York State. The Six Nations were friendly to the English in this war, and fought against their old foes, the French. A large party of them went with Johnson and helped him.



MAP SHOWING FRENCH AND ENGLISH FORTS

Johnson did not follow the enemy, or take Crown Point. Instead, he built a fort near the battlefield, which he called Fort William Henry. The French now built another fort, between Lake George and Lake Champlain, which they called Ticonderoga. The only French victory during this year

(1756) was the taking of the English Forts at Oswego by the Marquis Montcalm who had succeeded Dieskau.

Another plan of the English was to take the French stronghold of Louisburg, on Cape Breton Island, and thus be able to hold Acadia and New Brunswick. Much of Acadia had been held by England since Queen Anne's War.

209. The Acadians.—During the year, in which Braddock had failed and Johnson had partly succeeded, Acadia had been overrun by the English. Because the six thousand French people living there would not promise to be faithful to the English, they were moved away and scattered among the English colonies. Many went to Louisiana and joined the French there. To keep them from coming back, their homes were destroyed. It seemed hard to move them from their homes by force, but the English knew that if they were left in this part of the country, they would fight for the French. War is at best full of cruel things. The story of the Acadians is told in Longfellow's poem, "Evangeline."

210. "The Seven Years' War" in Europe.—So far, little fighting outside of America had been done by the English and French. But in 1756 war broke out in Europe, and even between the colonies of England and France in far-away India. Prussia, under that wonderful soldier King Frederick the Great, had become stronger as a European nation. Against Prussia were Austria, Russia, and France. England sided with Prussia. Thus began what is known in European history as "The Seven Years' War." Afterward Spain entered the war against Prussia and England. Then England captured Havana in Cuba, and the Philippine Islands, which had belonged to Spain ever since Magellan found them. England was likely to lose America, and be crushed in Europe, by the four nations that were fighting her and Prussia.

211. William Pitt.—William Pitt, an able and honest man, now became prime minister of England. He was one of England's greatest statesmen. He put good men in command in America, and gave the colonial troops an equal footing with the English regulars, while at the same time he pushed the war in Europe.

212. Montcalm.—The French now made Montcalm, one of their best generals, commander-in-chief in America. He at once began to win victories from the unfit commanders of the English forces. One of these was the taking of Fort William Henry in 1757. The Indians with him murdered most of the English after they had surrendered.

213. Defeat at Ticonderoga.—In 1758, General George Howe, sent to America by Pitt, went with an army to take the French fort Ticonderoga, near Lake George. In a slight skirmish he was killed. Then Abercrombie, who was not much of a soldier, in a very unskillful attack on the fort, was defeated with terrible loss. The Indians said that one of their old women would have done better as a general.

214. Capture of Louisburg and Fort Duquesne.—A few days after Abercrombie's defeat, General Wolfe, with the help of Amherst, took the great French fortress of Louisburg, that had been taken by New England troops in King George's War and then given back to the French. A month later, Fort Frontenac, on the north shore of Lake Ontario, was taken from the French.

From the defeat of Braddock to the year 1758, the Indians had been working havoc in the mountainous parts of Virginia, Maryland, and Pennsylvania. Nothing had been done toward a second movement against Fort Duquesne. But now an army was made up of colonists from these three colonies and from the Carolinas to capture the fort, and the

English general, Forbes, took command. Washington went with him and helped him greatly. The fort was taken, and its name was changed to Fort Pitt. The place is now the great city of Pittsburgh.

215. Plan of Campaign for 1759; Battle of Quebec. —

In 1759, the tireless Pitt, besides attending to the war in Europe, determined to take Quebec. He sent Johnson by the Niagara route to attack Montreal, and Wolfe to take Quebec by going up the St. Lawrence in ships. In the meantime, Amherst, after he had taken forts Crown Point and Ticonderoga, was to go north by Lake Champlain to help Wolfe. These, and the French forts at Niagara, were soon taken.

The great Montcalm defended Quebec; the great Wolfe attacked it. For months Wolfe tried in vain to gain a point from which to attack. Winter was coming, and Amherst had not arrived. The city is situated on a steep and rocky hill overlooking the river. It had a strong fort to protect it, and unless the English could reach the plain at the top, there was not even a chance to fight. At last, a path was found and one night Wolfe moved the troops there by boats, and in darkness and silence, they climbed to the plain, and dragged some of their cannon after them. When day broke, such of the English army as had climbed the cliff was drawn up in line, less than a mile from the city.

Hurrying forth to attack, before Wolfe could get the rest of his men up, Montcalm led out his troops and gave battle. The fight was furious, and both generals lost their lives. But the English won. The city surrendered September 18, 1759. England now held Quebec, Ticonderoga, Crown Point, Fort Duquesne, Niagara, and Louisburg.

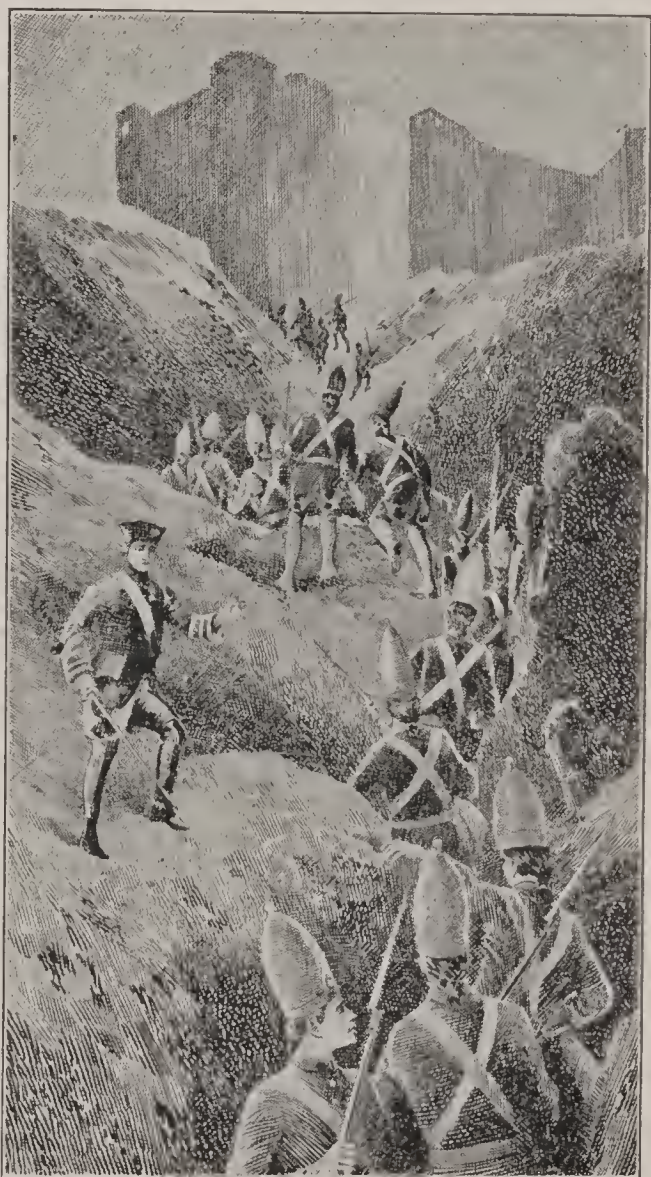
About a year later, a strong movement was made against

Montreal, and that city surrendered. The French and Indian War in America was over. New France was a thing of the past.

216. Treaty of Peace.—The Seven Years' War was ended by treaty in 1763. Under the treaty, France gave to Spain all her holdings west of the Mississippi, and the city of New Orleans, so that the Spanish thus controlled the great river. To England, went all the French territory east of the Mississippi, except two little islands south of Newfoundland, which were fishing stations. Thus the English had taken those parts of America settled by both the Dutch and the French. Florida, which had belonged to Spain, was given to England in exchange for Havana and the Philippine Islands. It was stated in the treaty that French should be the language of the people of Canada, and so it is, in the older part, to this day.

North America now belonged to England and Spain; and thus, in 1763, began a new period for the English in America.

The war in Europe left Frederick the Great victorious, and made England the most powerful nation in the world.



CLIMBING THE BLUFFS AT QUEBEC

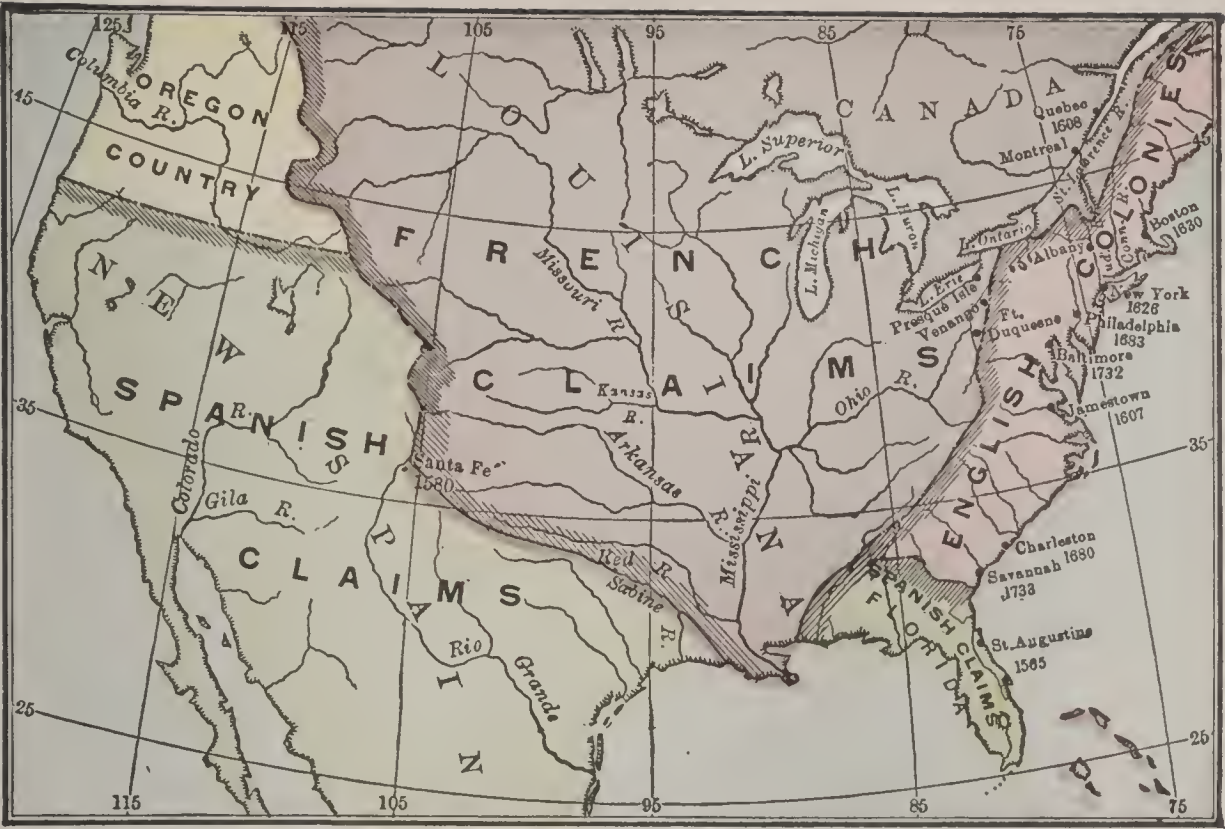
217. Pontiac's War. — After the French and Indian War, but before a treaty of peace was made, the English sent Major Rogers, with a party of his rangers, into the western country, to take charge of the French forts there. He carried written orders from the French, to those in command of the forts, to give them up.

Rogers was met before he reached Fort Detroit by a chief, who asked him what his business was in that country. Rogers told him that the English now owned all the land that had once belonged to the French. He told the chief that he was on his way to take charge of Fort Detroit, and all other French forts in the western country. "Stay where you are until to-morrow," said the chief. "I am Pontiac, and this is my country. The French may have yielded it to the English, but the Indians have not."

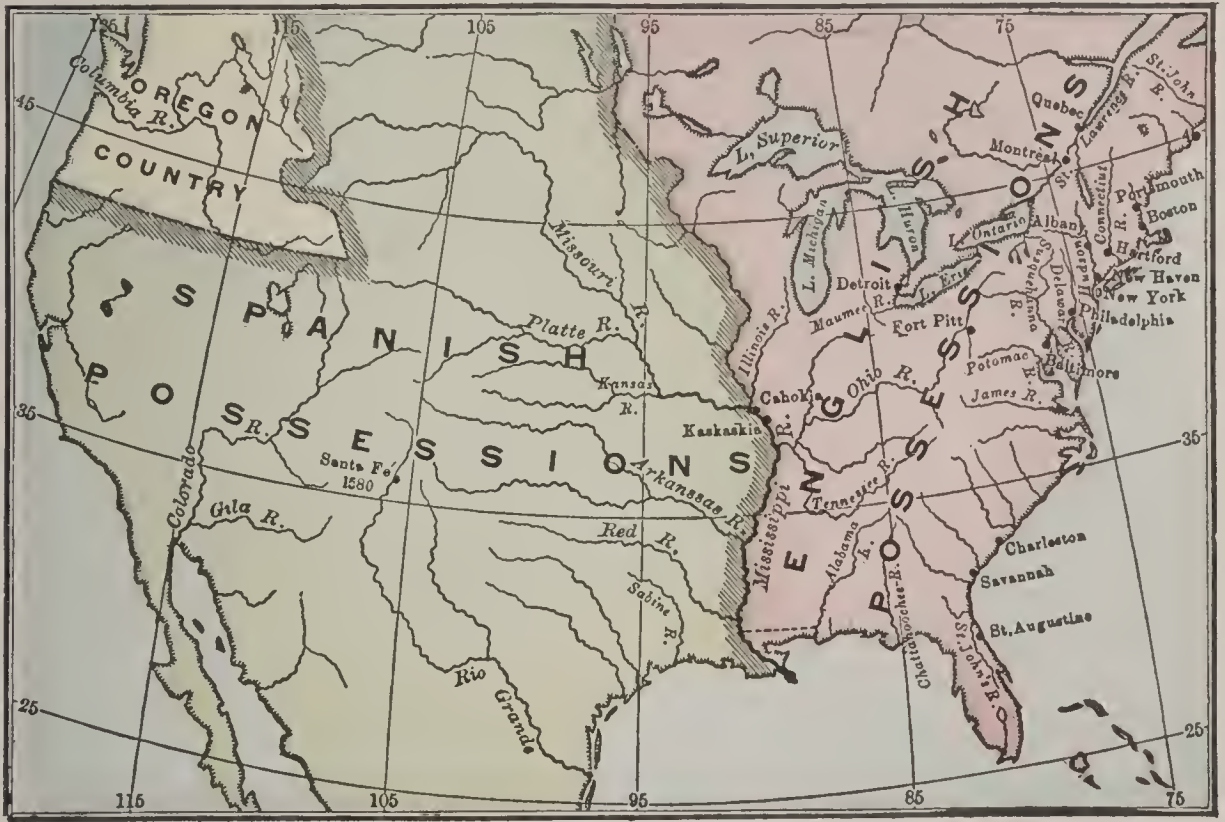
Rogers kept his camp until the next day. In the morning Pontiac came to him. "I have been the friend of the French," said he, "but they are beaten. I will be the friend of the English, if they treat me well." Then the pipe of peace was smoked, and there was peace between the English and the Indians, who until then had been their foes.

However, in 1761, the English heard that there was a plot among the Indians to make war upon them. On a certain day in May, 1763, the Indians in the western country were to attack the forts and settlements there.

At the appointed time, the Indians all through the West, without a word of warning, fell upon the English. In a day, the whole West was in the horror of an Indian war. Pontiac himself with a large force tried to take Fort Detroit, but failed in the attempt. An Indian girl had told the commander of the fort that the Indians meant to take it by surprise, and the soldiers were ready.



CENTRAL NORTH AMERICA, 1755
AT THE BEGINNING OF THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.



CENTRAL NORTH AMERICA, 1763
AFTER THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.
(ACCORDING TO PEACE OF PARIS)

Other forts were taken. Only four out of twelve escaped, one of which was Fort Pitt. But the English rallied, and soon began sending troops to beat off the savages. In 1763, a treaty was made between the English and the French, and then the French government caused the Indians to see that there was no hope of French help coming to them, and a year later the war ended. To Sir William Johnson, who had defeated Dieskau at Lake George, was largely due the failure of the great Indian uprising led by Pontiac.

In a meeting of Indians of the important northwestern tribes, held at Fort Detroit in 1761, promises of peace with the English had been given to Johnson. These promises were not kept by the Indians because they had been cheated in their dealings with dishonest English traders.

When Pontiac began to plan the attack against the English, Sir William Johnson prevented the Indians of the Six Nations, excepting the westerly tribe of Senecas, from joining in the fight that was to come. After Pontiac's attack upon the English forts, all hope of getting help from other Indian tribes was destroyed by treaties which Johnson made with the Indians in a great council held at Fort Niagara in 1764. More than two thousand Indians, who came from the Mississippi River country and from as far east as Nova Scotia, were present at this great gathering. In Detroit during the following year, Pontiac, seeing that all hope of success was gone, made a formal treaty of peace with the English. In 1766, a meeting of chiefs was held at Oswego, at which Sir William Johnson and Pontiac were present, and the treaty made at Detroit, the year before, was confirmed.

Three years later, Pontiac was murdered by an Indian near St. Louis. This was the last great war made by the Indians against the English.

SUMMARY

1. The English, confined to the coast, began to see the value for settlement of the land that lay beyond the mountain ranges, to the west.
2. King George's War.
3. Name some of the industries of New England.
4. The formation of the Ohio Company led the English to attempt the building of forts, on ground claimed by French. This caused trouble between the French and the English colonists, that ended in the war known as the French and Indian War.
5. General Braddock and Washington march against Fort Duquesne in 1755. The expedition ended in failure and in the death of Braddock.
6. Fort William Henry, built by Sir William Johnson, at the head of Lake George was taken by Montcalm in 1757.
7. The English were defeated at Fort Ticonderoga in 1758. A few days later Wolfe took Louisburg, the French fortress on Cape Breton Island.
8. Fort Duquesne was taken from the French by General Forbes, in 1758.
9. General Wolfe took Quebec in 1759, thus ending the war. Montreal was taken a year later. The French power in America was thus broken.
10. Pontiac urged the Indians to make war on the English. Pontiac's War was ended by treaty made with him at Detroit in 1765.
11. Treaty of peace between the French and the English was made in 1763.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. For what purpose was the Ohio Company formed?
2. Name the colonial wars which occurred in this country before the French and Indian War. Tell about King George's War.
3. When did the English attempt to build a fort in the Ohio Valley? What name was given to this fort by the French after they had completed it?
4. To what war did the attempt by the English to settle the Ohio country lead?
5. Who attempted, in 1755, to take Fort Duquesne? Was the attempt successful? Why not?
6. Give an account of some of the chief events of the French and Indian war. Name some of the leading generals on each side.
7. Why did the English fail to take Fort Ticonderoga in 1758?
8. What battle ended the war?
9. Give an account of Pontiac's War.

CHAPTER X

THE ENGLISH COLONIES

218. Canada.—In 1763, four years after the fall of Quebec, France gave Canada to England. Thus the English ruled a region in America whose inhabitants were French in manners, customs, and ways of living. Though they yielded, the Canadians were still French at heart, and hoped that France might regain her power in America.

219. English Colonies.—Affairs in the colonies were much as they had been before. There was no longer danger from France on the north, or from Spain on the south, nor, after Pontiac's War, was there any fear of the Indians.

220. People.—At the close of the French and Indian War, there were in the old colonies about 1,500,000 white people. There were scattered over the country about 350,000 negro slaves. Slavery existed from Massachusetts to Georgia, though nearly all the slaves were in the South, where the climate is warm. They worked in the fields, raising tobacco, rice, and other warm-climate crops.

The settled portions of English America lay along the coast, and were far removed from one another. Most of the people lived along the rivers, or at tide-water, for the waterways were the highways of travel. There was in each of the colonies a strong feeling of independence, and even of jealousy of the others. James Otis of Massachusetts, who was one of the greatest of the Revolutionary patriots, wrote, in 1765, "Were these colonies left to themselves to-morrow,

America would be a mere shambles of blood and confusion before little petty states could be settled."

From time to time, the people in every colony had complained of ill-treatment by governors sent from England. By the test of warfare, against the French and Indians, the colonists had learned that they could fight. In each colony, *self-government by the people* had been tried, and the result was good. They had found that there was no need for kings. Yet they had no thought of breaking away from the mother country.

221. How England Treated her Colonies. — The colonists were forbidden to buy or sell in any country except England, or to make goods for themselves. This was done by enforcing the old and long forgotten Navigation Laws which had been passed in the time of Charles II, and even earlier.

There was but little manufacturing among the colonists, even of goods for home use. Clay, and the fuel to bake it into bricks, could be found in boundless quantities in America,

but the colonists were not permitted to make bricks. Under the laws of England, bricks for American homes were bought in England. The colonists were forbidden to



PINE-TREE SHILLING

trade with other nations — and with each other. Everything was forbidden by law that would prevent Englishmen at home from making money out of the needs of the colonies.

222. Money Used by the Colonists. — English coins were used by the colonists and business was done in pounds, shil-

lings, and pence. But coin was scarce and trade was carried on largely by exchange of goods. Some colonies made coins of their own. In 1652, there was in Boston a mint where shillings, six-penny, and three-penny coins of silver were made.

223. Industries. — As early as 1620, glass was made in Jamestown, and a little later a grist-mill was built there. In



THE AMERICAN WEEKLY MERCURY.

From Thursday *October 2*, to Thursday *October 9*, 1740.

REDUCED FACSIMILE OF THE HEADING OF AN EARLY ISSUE
OF THE FIRST NEWSPAPER IN PHILADELPHIA

1642 cast-iron was made in Massachusetts. The first printing press was set up in Massachusetts in 1639, and in 1665 the Bible was printed in the Indian language. A newspaper, called *The News-Letter*, was printed in Boston as early as 1704, and soon afterward there were newspapers in Philadelphia and New York. Before 1775, newspapers were common, and there were printing presses in all the colonies. Farming was the chief industry, much tobacco being grown in Virginia, while potatoes and corn were raised in New England.

224. Writs of Assistance. — In spite of English laws, the colonists bought goods of countries other than England. When ships from those countries reached our ports with

needed goods, offered at less than English prices, the American merchants bought them. On goods so bought they paid no taxes to England. Long before this time England passed laws unjustly restricting the trade of the colonists, who resisted and opposed these tyrannous oppressions and illegal acts as being an unlawful interference with their means of getting a living.

In 1761, England issued to the customs officers what were known as "Writs of Assistance." These writs gave the officers power to enter warehouses and even private dwellings in search of goods upon which it was claimed no duty had been paid. In a great speech attacking these writs a Massachusetts patriot, James Otis, sounded a rallying cry for all American patriots.

225. England's Need of Colonies.—England was liberal to her colonies when it was to her advantage. She was not always wise but felt it would be dangerous to get their ill will, for at any time their help might be needed, as it had been when she captured Canada.

226. The Lords of Trade and the Colonial Governors.—England dealt with her colonies through a body of men in Parliament known as "The Lords of Trade." The governors of the colonies made to this body reports, which were not always true. Thus the "Lords of Trade" were often misled, and were made to believe that the colonists were not loyal to the home government. In this way an unjust feeling against the colonists grew up in England.

227. France no Longer to be Feared.—The English Parliament had often tried to bring its subjects in America under better control. It had never thought it wise to use force, because France had always stood ready to take advantage of quarrels between the colonists and the mother country.

But France was not then to be feared, either in America or Europe, and England in dealing with her colonies did not fear any rival nation.

228. George III. — In 1760 George III, a man of twenty-one, had come to the English throne. He was jealous of the power of Parliament and he determined to lessen it. He schemed and plotted and became very much disliked by his subjects. The greatest, wisest, and fairest-minded of England's statesmen were against him. He cared little for the rights of Englishmen in England, and less for the rights of colonists in America.



KING GEORGE III

229. Taxation without Representation. — The French and Indian War had been costly. Yet the colonies had borne more than one-half of its burden, both in money and in lives. Massachusetts alone had furnished and supported seven thousand soldiers. Yet the king proposed to tax the colonies still more, and to do it against their will. The money gained from this tax was to be used in paying England's share of the war debt, and to support a standing English army in America. The colonists in America did not object to paying taxes provided they might share in determining their amount and the purpose for which they were to be raised. They said that they would not pay taxes unless they were represented in the English Parliament. They declared, "Taxation without representation is tyranny."

230. England Tries to Humble the Colonies; the Stamp Act. — The spirit shown by these colonists beyond the

sea, annoyed the king and his party. Then it was that the old Navigation Laws were put into force, and new laws were made even more hurtful to the colonists.

One of these laws, passed in 1765, was called "The Stamp Act." Under it England caused great quantities of stamps to be printed, which were to be sold to the colonists at from one penny to as high as ten pounds each. No legal or business paper was binding unless it bore one of these stamps. Even newspapers were to be stamped. Most of the people in the colonies were very angry when the stamps were sent here, and refused to buy them. Bands of patriots called "Sons of Liberty" were formed in every colony to oppose the Stamp Act and to resist British tyranny. In various places they planted huge poles in the ground, calling them "Liberty Poles." A number of these poles in New York were cut down by British soldiers, but they were set up again as fast as they were cut down. Everywhere in the colonies the "Sons of Liberty" opposed English rule and were the first to ask for independence and armed resistance. When the royal governor of New York had threatened to order his soldiers to fire on them, his effigy was carried through the streets in his own carriage, and both were burned in his presence.

The Stamp Act was in force for a year, and during that time the anger of the people grew. The colonies sent agents to New York to meet in a Congress which was to plan a course of action against England. The Congress prepared a statement called "A Declaration of Rights." Samuel Adams, one of the leading American patriots, made an eloquent speech in Faneuil Hall, in Boston, against the Stamp Act. Many patriotic meetings were held in Faneuil Hall, which for that reason has been called "The Cradle of Liberty." This building was the gift of Peter Faneuil to Boston for public meetings.

The Stamp Act became so distasteful that Parliament at length repealed it.

In 1768 the Assembly of Massachusetts sent a letter to the other colonies, asserting the rights of the people. It called



PATRICK HENRY IN THE VIRGINIA ASSEMBLY

After the painting by A. Chappel

upon all to resist unjust tax laws. The replies from all the colonies were alike, in promising to stand by Massachusetts.

At about this time, the people of Virginia, spurred by the eloquence of Patrick Henry and led by George Washington, agreed to use no goods on which a duty had been paid to England. Other colonies followed this course, and soon the merchants of England felt the effect of it. So loudly did they complain that the duty taxes in America were killing their trade, that all the tax laws were repealed, except one. That was kept in force, to show that England claimed the right to lay such taxes. It was thought that the colonists would willingly pay a trifling tax on tea, and that they would

thus admit that a revenue tax was just. But England was mistaken in this matter. When an English ship arrived at Boston with a cargo of tea, men disguised as Indians boarded her and threw the tea overboard. This became known as the Boston Tea Party. Ships with tea sent to other ports were not allowed to unload their cargoes except in Charleston, South Carolina, where the tea, after being unloaded, was allowed to spoil. At Annapolis the people forced one shipmaster to burn both ship and cargo.

231. Committees of Correspondence. — During the stir about the duties, and before cargoes of tea reached America, the people of Massachusetts formed Committees of Correspondence. It was the duty of these to write letters from Boston to the towns, and from the towns to Boston, three or four times a week. Mounted men carried these letters. The plan worked so well that soon there were Committees of Correspondence in nearly all the colonies, and thus each colony knew what was going on in all the others.

232. It was the King's Fault. — England's best and wisest statesmen had opposed oppression in all the unfairness that had been heaped upon the colonies. They openly declared that such harsh laws were wrong and unjust, but the young king was headstrong and would not agree with them. Since wise and good men would not help him in his course, he called to his aid those who had more craft and selfishness than honesty. He spent a large part of the vast fortune left him by his father, in bribing members of Parliament to do his will. Some, who would not take money, he gained by giving them high offices.

233. Tories and Whigs. — The king's followers were called *Tories*, and the English people, who were against him and his party, were known as *Whigs*. Thus there were two political parties in England. The Whig party in England with

Edmund Burke and William Pitt as its leaders was opposed to the king in his oppression of the colonists. The Tories in the colonies took sides with the king and were not opposed to the Stamp Act, or anything else the king wanted. Their neighbors, the Whigs, were against the Stamp Act and all other laws that cut off their just rights.

As things were, the course of the king and his followers became a matter of words in England, and of arms in America. The angry king was by this time more intent on forcing the colonists to submit to his will than he was on getting money from them. To his mind the colonists were rebels, and they must be punished.

234. First Continental Congress. — In 1774 it was plain that there was danger of war. It was thought wise to call another Congress of all the colonies, to consider what should be done. The men appointed met at Philadelphia late in the year, each



CARPENTERS' HALL, PHILADELPHIA, 1774
Where the first Continental Congress met

colony except Georgia sending representatives. This meeting was called the Continental Congress. In a great speech, Patrick Henry declared, "I am no longer a Virginian, but an American." This remark was the text of many speeches made during the session, and showed that the colonists meant to work together. General Gage, fearing that the colonists

would attack his army in Boston, was throwing up earth-works for defense. Congress, hoping for peace, sent a respectful message to the king asking that he treat the colonists fairly. He refused to read it.

This first Continental Congress lasted for nearly two months. The Congress had no power to make laws; it could only advise. It did advise that all unite in putting pressure on the people of England, in the hope that thus the king might be reached. It sent word to the colonists asking them to agree to buy nothing from England, and to send no goods of any kind to England. The effect was soon felt in England, whose colonies were of value to her for the trade they gave her, and the result was such as the colonists had expected. The distress in England that came from the loss of trade gave the Whig party new strength.

235. The Fisheries. — The king then caused Parliament to pass a law forbidding Massachusetts to fish on the Newfoundland banks. This hurt New England, for its people were largely engaged in catching codfish off the Newfoundland coast. Their little vessels lay idle at the wharves, and they had no means of earning their bread.

236. Privateers. — Thereupon the colonists turned their fishing vessels into armed sea-rovers, to pounce on English merchant-ships and their cargoes. In a short time, as soon as the war began, there were thousands of fishermen, the best sailors in the world, ravaging British commerce on the sea.

237. The Minute-men. — The people of Massachusetts and other parts of New England were preparing for war, but thought it wise to wait for England to strike the first blow. They meant that the world should see that they were forced to fight to defend themselves.

Men in all the towns formed companies that met, nightly, for drill. Each man held himself ready to rush to the field as a soldier, *at a minute's notice*. Thus, while there was no camp of soldiers, there was a patriot army of several thousand men, ready for instant service. Those who belonged to this force were called *Minute-men*.

There were many veterans of the French wars still living, and they taught military drill to those younger men who had never been soldiers. Like Massachusetts, other colonies prepared for war.

SUMMARY

1. After the French and Indian War, England began to oppress her colonies in America.
2. The colonists claimed the right to buy goods wherever they pleased.
3. To escape severe taxation, the colonists refused to buy goods from England.
4. Under "Writs of Assistance," houses were searched by tax officers.
5. The "Stamp Act." Anger of the colonists.
6. Massachusetts takes a firm stand.
7. First Continental Congress, 1774. The colonists say that they will buy no more goods from England.
8. The "Minute-men."



STATUE OF THE
MINUTE-MAN AT
CONCORD

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. How did England propose to make money from her American colonies?
2. Who were the Tories?
3. For what purpose were "Writs of Assistance" issued?
4. What was meant by "Taxation without Representation"?
5. What was the purpose of the "Stamp Act"?
6. What colony was most active in opposing the measures of Parliament?
7. When did the first Continental Congress meet? Where? What was its purpose? What did England do in return for some of the measures passed by this Congress?
8. Who were the "Minute-men"? Why were they so called?

CHAPTER XI

THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR

238. The Rebellion against the King. — In 1775 Parliament declared that there was rebellion in Massachusetts. To put it down, a fleet was sent to Boston with thousands of soldiers, and General Gage, who had regular British troops in that city, was getting ready for action.

Many patriots had left Boston to escape from Tories, as many Tories had gone to that place to avoid the patriots. Samuel Adams and John Hancock, leaders against the king, were wanted by General Gage, and, if he had caught them, their fate would have been sad.

239. Lexington and Concord. — Through Tory spies outside the city, Gage knew what was going on in the country. He thus learned that by a quick dash to Lexington and Concord, he might capture Adams and Hancock and destroy arms and supplies that were stored there. At midnight, April 18, 1775, he sent a force from Boston toward Lexington. But, if Tories outside could send word in, patriots inside could send word out. Paul Revere saw what was being done, and made that ride of which Longfellow tells in his poem.

The Minute-men were roused and began to gather. When the British column reached Lexington, in the gray of the dawn, there was a group of them on the village green. The king's troops fired on them, killing and wounding several. The soldiers then marched a few miles farther toward Concord. But so many Minute-men were in sight, that the British colonel prudently sent to Boston for more troops.

At Concord were more Minute-men, coming from all directions. At Concord bridge they attacked two hundred "red-coats," as the British in their scarlet uniforms were called, and drove back such as they did not kill.



THE BATTLE OF LEXINGTON

After a drawing by two Connecticut soldiers who were in the battle

From outlying villages and farms, the Minute-men gathered along the road from Lexington to Boston. They had no general in command, and every man was his own officer. After leaving Lexington the British fared badly. Few, if any, of the British soldiers would have reached Boston, had not the troops that had been sent for come to meet them and help them to safety.

The Minute-men camped that night near Cambridge, and that camp remained until the British army was driven from Boston.

Thus began the war of The American Revolution.

Many a horseman set out with news that the war had begun.

It was not Boston's war; it was not the war of Massachusetts; it was Pennsylvania's war; it was Virginia's war; it was the war of all the colonies.

For ten years, a portion, perhaps half, of the Americans, had sought in peaceful ways, and sometimes in ways that were hardly peaceful, to get their just rights. Now they united to fight for them, and to fight hard. The king had struck the first blow, had killed the first men, and the blow had been paid back quickly with the killing of many men. The patriots were to fight now against the soldiers of the king, and against the Tories who were rallying to the royal flag.

240. England and the Colonies at the Beginning of the Revolution. — The colonies were poor, having lost men and money in the French and Indian War. They were far apart, so that it was hard to bring together the men who were willing to fight. There was, as yet, no strong feeling of union among them, and they had not overcome the feeling that each colony was for itself and none for all. Many people sided with the king, and were ready to fight their neighbors.

England was as strong as the colonies were weak — the strongest nation in the world. The richest of nations, she had three times as many people as the colonies. Her merchant ships were the best; her navy ruled the sea; and she had a large army that had won great victories in Europe. It seemed foolhardy for the weak colonies to brave the anger of England's king. Yet, England could not afford a war. The long and costly struggle to gain Canada had left her in debt. She needed years of peace in which to grow strong. To fight the colonies, she would be obliged to move troops and supplies thousands of miles across the sea. This would cost more than it would to grant their just demands.

241. The Second Continental Congress. — In May, 1775, the Second Continental Congress met at Philadelphia, with John Hancock of Massachusetts as its president. In the first Congress, there had been hope that fair treatment might be gained; now there was a state of war. The time for pleading had passed and the duty of this Congress was to carry on the war. It was difficult for the colonists to learn that in union there is strength. But confronted by a common danger and encouraged by the success of their soldiers in meeting the British Regulars at the battles of Lexington and Concord, they united for the struggle upon which they were entering. They were now bound together with a common interest and patriotic zeal to carry to a successful issue the great cause upon which they were united.



FLAG OF THE UNITED COLONIES
1775-1777

The colonists never lost confidence in the wisdom, patriotism and patience of their great leaders. Here was now born for the first time in America the national idea. The colonies which up to this meeting had been working and thinking as individual units now combined to provide supplies and ammunition. Congress voted to raise an army of 20,000 men, to be paid by the United Colonies, and to be called the Continental Army. Thus began the first real National Army. A National Navy was provided for and it was ordered that thirteen warships be built. A National Commander-in-Chief was appointed, and National Money was ordered.

242. The Siege of Boston. — A few days after the battle of Lexington, the little camp of patriots near Cambridge grew to an army of 15,000 men, and laid siege to Boston. The

patriots meant to capture, drive out, or destroy the British army. Men were coming on foot from distant colonies to join the Cambridge army. Earth-works were being built around Boston from which to fight General Gage's men.



MAP OF BOSTON AND BUNKER HILL, 1775

some of these cannon might send shot to reach the troops within. Two of these hills are higher than the others. One, in Charlestown, near Bunker Hill, was called Breed's Hill, and the other, to the south of Boston, was called Dorchester Heights.

By the middle of June, Gage's forces numbered about ten thousand men. He saw that he must seize Breed's Hill and Dorchester Heights, and fortify them, for it was plain that if he did not, the Continentals would, and would then compel him to leave the city. While he was getting ready the Con-

Boston is on a peninsula and a strip of land joins it with the mainland. This little strip was fortified by the British at one end, and by the Continentals at the other. On the mainland around the city — which was then very small — are various hills, and from

tinentials went to Breed's Hill in the night and built some fairly good breast-works. At sunrise the next morning, June 17, 1775, the British saw what was going on and opened fire on the hill from their warships.



THE BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL, JUNE 17, 1775

Boston Battery

Charlestown

British troops attacking

From a contemporary print

243. The Battle of Bunker Hill. — Colonel Prescott's thousand Minute-men kept cool and Gage soon saw that something more than long-range cannon fire was needed to drive them away. More than a third of his men moved over to Charlestown to take the hill. Meanwhile, the Continentals had been busy in strengthening their earth-works, and in getting more men into them.

On came the British. All was silent behind the breast-works. A thousand eyes were sighting the barrels, each with its man picked out. A thousand fingers pressed the firelocks ready to pull at the word. The courage shown was wonderful. "Don't fire until you see the whites of their eyes," said the American commander.

The word was given, "Fire!" There were a few seconds of the rattle of musketry; a cloud of smoke floated back; powder-horns were lifted; bullets were rammed home. This was inside the works. Outside, lay the harvest rows of death. The advancing line had melted. It was broken as a wave is broken when it strikes the rocks. The British soldiers who had come on in martial pride fell back in terror.

Again urged on, threatened, beaten with swords, the British formed and charged. Again the cool marksmen behind the breast-works swept them out of life. Now came a time of danger to the Minute-men. Their powder was gone, and if the British should charge again, they would win.

More troops came from Boston, and the third charge was made. It swept the patriots from the hill, and they fell back to escape capture. It was a costly victory for the British, who lost eleven hundred and fifty-four; the Continentals, four hundred and forty-nine. Among the patriots who were killed was General Warren, who, had he lived, might have become as famous as Washington. Among the British dead lay Major Pitcairn, who had ordered his men to fire on the Minute-men at Lexington.

The battles of Lexington and Bunker Hill proved what the world had refused to believe, that the Continental soldiers, both in attack and in defense, could stand against any troops in the world. The art of war as followed in Indian fighting, and in the struggle against the French, had been well learned by the hardy New Englanders, and they had become better soldiers than they knew. It was shown, and the showing has been many times repeated, that, as a fighter, the American soldier has no superior.

244. Washington, Commander-in-Chief. — Two days before this battle, John Adams of Massachusetts rose in

Congress and said, "Mr. President: We need a Commander-in-Chief in the great war upon which we are entering, to plan our campaigns and direct our armies. Who is better fitted than George Washington of Virginia?" Washington was appointed General-in-Chief of the Continental Army, June 15, 1775, and at once went to Cambridge, to take command.



WASHINGTON IN COMMAND OF THE CONTINENTAL ARMY

By order of congress, troops from the colonies of the far South were sent to Cambridge, so that it was truly a Continental army, and not simply a body of New England troops.

Washington's task was not a light one. He had about 15,000 men poorly armed, untrained, and inexperienced. His first task was to find food, clothing, and ammunition. The winter months of 1775 were spent at Cambridge in drilling the soldiers and preparing for a spring campaign. Some soldiers had seen service in European armies, and others in the recent French and Indian Wars.

245. Ticonderoga and Crown Point. — Meantime, others than the troops before Boston were busy. In old forts at

Ticonderoga and Crown Point there were cannon taken from the French in the war a few years before. These forts had been taken by hardy farmers led by Allen and Stark, in May, and by the time the snows of winter came, rude sleds had been made and hundreds of oxen were slowly dragging precious loads of cannon, powder, and ball toward Cambridge. Stores of powder were also coming from far-away Georgia.

246. The Attempt to take Montreal and Quebec. — It was planned by the British, that while the Continental army was besieging Gage in Boston, a British force should come south from Canada into the colony of New York. Washington learned of this, and decided to attack Montreal and Quebec. He sent General Montgomery with a small force by way of Lake Champlain to take Montreal, which was done. At the same time, Benedict Arnold was sent with a still smaller force, through the woods of Maine, to take Quebec, where Montgomery was to join him after taking Montreal. Arnold's men suffered much on the way and were delayed in reaching Quebec. A little more than half of them got there, and were joined by Montgomery's force. The attack on Quebec was made on the last day of the year 1775, and it failed. Montgomery was killed and Arnold badly wounded. Montgomery was a young Irishman who had fought bravely in the French and Indian War. His monument stands in St. Paul's churchyard, New York City.

247. Dorchester Heights. — General Gage, after taking Breed's Hill, neglected to take Dorchester Heights, and General Howe, who followed him in command, was equally neglectful. Washington, now supplied with heavy cannon, had been firing on the city from various works around it.

While the British, bewildered by the firing, kept marching about from point to point, to meet possible attacks from



REFERENCE MAP FOR THE REVOLUTION
NORTHERN AND MIDDLE STATES.

Washington's forces, he moved two thousand men to Dorchester Heights, which he fortified and planted with cannon.

The British had taken one New England hill, and had learned in sorrow what such victories cost. Howe thought it would be better to give up the city than to attack Dorchester Heights. It was therefore arranged that if Howe would withdraw from Boston, Washington would withhold his fire and let him go. The British troops, with a great many Tories, went aboard ship and sailed for Halifax, March 17, 1776. The next day Washington entered the city with his troops. No armed enemy has ever set foot in Boston since.

248. War in the Carolinas. — Baffled in New England, the king decided to wage war in other colonies. Before Washington took Boston, a fleet bearing an army was sent from that port to meet another from England, under Sir Peter Parker. These were to move against the Carolinas, where the descendants of the early colonists who had settled in that locality were mostly Tories. It was the plan that an armed force of these was to join British troops landing from the fleet.

A body of patriot troops, however, defeated the Tory force and captured all its stores. Learning of this, Sir Peter tried in June, 1776, to take Charleston, South Carolina. But, no enemy has ever been able to take Charleston by attack from sea, and both fleet and army were soundly whipped.

249. The War in New York and New Jersey. — When the British ships had passed from sight, bearing troops from Boston to Halifax, Washington made ready to move his army to New York. He knew that the British generals would try to control the Hudson River, and thus separate New England from the rest of the colonies. He saw that the next fighting would be in or about the city of New York, and he meant to be there with his men.

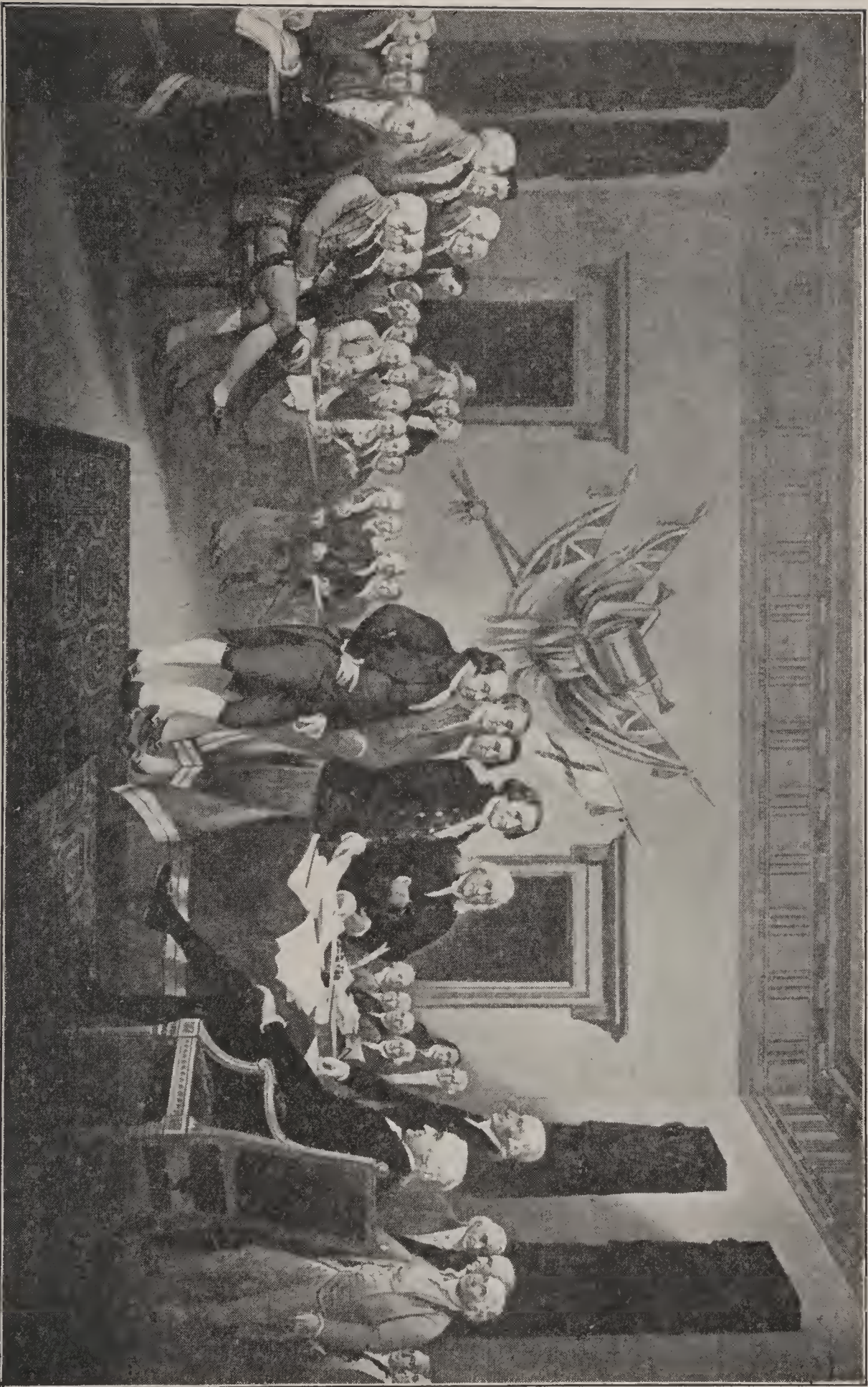
While the Americans were fighting for their rights, they did not cease trying to obtain them by milder measures. As late as August, 1775, the Congress sent a messenger to plead with the king and Parliament for consideration. The king would not even read the petition.

250. The Hessians. — Some unfit men, whom fate had made rulers over petty provinces in Germany, were in need of money and ordered their regiments to go to America to fight for the British king in a quarrel which was not theirs. Thus, for money, they sent thousands of Hessian soldiers away to be killed.

251. Independence. — The coming of the Hessians made the Americans very angry. They had been fighting for their rights under the king. They now began to declare for *Independence*. They would have nothing to do with such a king, but would start the colonies as a new nation, or a number of new nations. "We must fight it through," said a patriot to Benjamin Franklin, as together they signed the Declaration of Independence; "we must hang together." "If we do not hang together," said Franklin, "we shall surely hang separately."

In the early part of 1776, there was much talk of making the struggle a war for independence. Wise men among the patriots saw that this was advisable. There was joy in France over the trouble that England was having with her colonies, and hope that she would be humbled. The French had not forgotten their defeat by England and were not idle. French agents were in America; French money had been sent to keep up the rebellion. It was understood that, at the proper time, France might openly help the Americans, even at the expense of war with England.

If the colonies were a nation, fighting another nation, France



SIGNING THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

From a recent photograph of the original painting

might feel free to take sides with them, and leading Americans were not slow to say that the colonies ought to declare themselves forever free from English control.

It was seen that the time to act had come, and, in June, a committee was appointed to prepare a Declaration of Independence, and another to prepare laws for the government of the nation, to be called, "Articles of Confederation." Thomas Jefferson was a member of the first committee, and wrote the Declaration. It was adopted by Congress in 1776, July 4, the day we now celebrate as our greatest holiday.

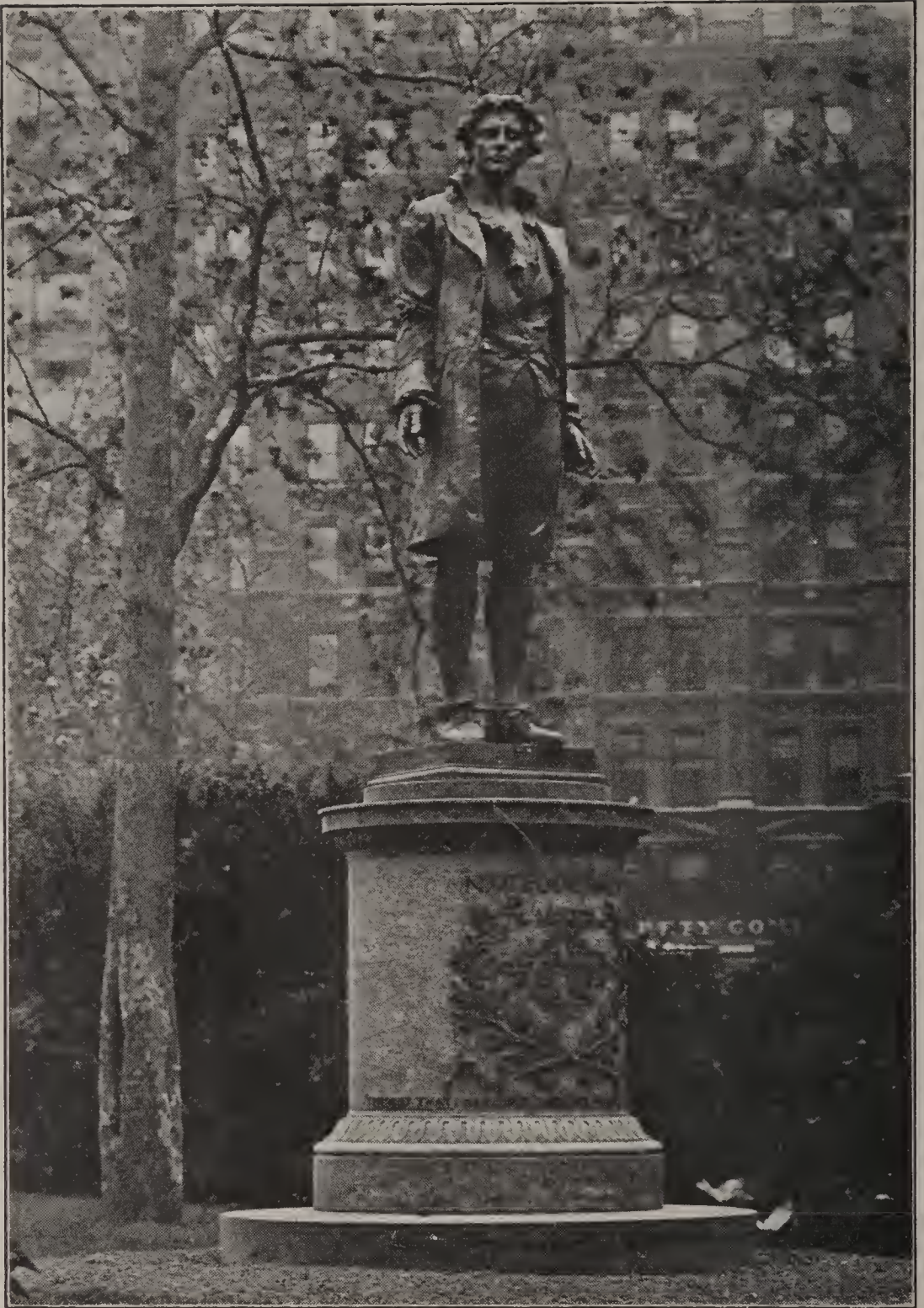
The act of Congress in thus declaring the colonies to be a nation was hailed with great rejoicing. The Continental soldiers in New York City were formed in parade and the Declaration was read to them. The king's statue, made of lead, stood on Bowling Green. It was pulled down, chopped up, and cast into bullets.

There were now no British colonies in America. They had become states. They were *united* to defend themselves. They were the *United States of America*.

252. Washington's Movements. — While Congress was giving its time to the making of a nation, Washington and his men were struggling at New York against a powerful English army helped by a strong British war fleet. Washington had arrived in New York in April, and in June, Howe had come from Halifax with the troops that Washington had driven out of Boston, and had encamped on Staten Island. A little later, Howe's brother, Admiral Howe, had come to New York with the British fleet.

The plan of the British was to gain control of the Hudson River and the Lake Champlain valley, and thus fence off rebellious New England from the rest of the colonies.

Upon a number of hills southwest of Brooklyn, over which



NATHAN HALE

Who nobly said, "I only regret that I have but one life to lose for my country."

the city has since spread, Washington built earth-works. He also built works north of New York, and in a general way prepared for defensive fighting for the Hudson River, should he be driven back from Long Island.

Uncertain as to what the British would do next Washington asked for a volunteer to go into the British camp and discover the plans of the enemy. Captain Nathan Hale, a young school-teacher, stepped forward for this dangerous service and made the journey. After gathering the information he was captured when about to cross Long Island Sound on his return. Without a trial he was hanged the next morning as a spy. After a night of cruel treatment by the British soldiers, this brave young patriot, barely twenty-one years of age, met his death declaring, "I only regret that I have but one life to lose for my country." The statue in City Hall Park, New York, was erected near where he was executed.

253. The Battle of Long Island. — Late in August, Howe crossed from Staten Island to Long Island, defeated the Americans, and drove them back to Brooklyn Heights. There Washington's army was strongly entrenched behind fortifications in a well protected position which made attack difficult. Dreading to attack the entrenchments, Howe sought to surround the Americans with his greater force and lay siege to their works. In Washington's army, there were men from New England who were skillful boatmen. To them was given the task of ferrying the troops across the East River from Brooklyn to New York. On August 29, 1776, a foggy night, such as is common in New York Harbor, the American army escaping capture was moved to Manhattan Island.

254. Retreat to Harlem. — Pressed now by a much stronger force, Washington, checking his pursuers with great skill,

fell slowly back. He had built Fort Washington on Harlem Heights, now a New York City Park. Fearing that he could not hold the fort he ordered it abandoned, but his orders were not obeyed. The fort was taken by the British and a large part of the garrison was captured.

It was now the middle of November. For weeks Washington had held the enemy in check, there being some severe fighting at White Plains. Fort Washington and Fort Lee, on opposite sides of the Hudson, had been built to keep the British fleet from going up the river. Soon after the fall of Fort Washington, Fort Lee was abandoned.

The loss of these forts gave control of the lower Hudson to the British, but works had been built at West Point, so strong that the fleet could not pass them, and so the Hudson, as a whole, was still held by the Americans. Though driven away from New York City with heavy loss, Washington still held what he had been fighting for. The fort at West Point was now the key to the Hudson River, and was the most important point in the whole country.

255. Washington Enters New Jersey.—Washington crossed the Hudson into New Jersey with a portion of his army. His plan was to escape the enemy on the New York side, and, at the same time, be ready to check General Cornwallis in New Jersey, whose force threatened Philadelphia. He ordered General Charles Lee, his second in command, to bring over the rest of the army to help him.

Unknown to Washington, or to the patriots, Lee was a traitor. He did not come with his command, and Washington gave up his plan of fighting Cornwallis. Instead of winning a victory as he had hoped, Washington with his part of the army fell back across New Jersey, pressed by the British troops. He crossed the Delaware River into Pennsylvania,

while Lee's command crossed into New Jersey and remained in the northern part of the state to defend the Hudson. Lee was taken prisoner by the British soon after this, and it was a long time before he was exchanged.

The king was gaining ground against the patriots and Cornwallis's army was driving Washington's. People in New Jersey were surrendering to the king; men by hundreds were retiring from Washington's army, because they were worn out and discouraged. Congress, fearful of capture, moved from Philadelphia to Baltimore. At the end of the year, the time for which many of the soldiers had enlisted would have passed, and many who would not leave, could then feel free to go to their homes. Thus Washington's army became small and weak, and would soon be still smaller and weaker. Something must be done, and done quickly, or the rebellion would be crushed, and the Declaration of Independence be made a by-word.

It was now December, and near Christmas time. Washington's little force was on the Pennsylvania side of the Delaware River, while the troops of Cornwallis were on the New Jersey side, and a force of Hessians was at Trenton.

256. Battle of Trenton. — Washington had wisely seized all the boats along the Delaware for many miles. Thus he could cross the river at will, while the British could not.

It was the custom of the Hessian people to have a good time at Christmas, with much eating and drinking. Christmas night that year was bitter cold, and the Delaware was full of floating ice. There was no Christmas cheer in Washington's camp. His men, half-shod, half-clothed, half-fed, were plodding along through snow and sleet, over frozen ground, to the river, which they crossed in boats. All suffered much, and some perished from the cold. On the

morning after Christmas, they were at Trenton and rushed to the attack. The Hessians, unfit to fight, quickly gave up. More than a thousand prisoners were taken and a wealth of war supplies, worth more to the patriots than gold.



WASHINGTON CROSSING THE DELAWARE

In this battle, General Greene of Rhode Island was very helpful, foreshowing the skill that was yet to make him famous as Washington's right arm, in the fighting that was to come. There was also a young soldier there, James Monroe, who was one day to be President of the nation for which he was fighting.

Moving quickly, Washington recrossed the river with the captured Hessians and the spoils of war.

It was a wonderful victory. It put new hope into the hearts of the patriot soldiers. "We will stay," they cried, "even though our time of service ends at New Year's Day. Get for us a little of the money that is due and we will stand by the general that can work wonders with us."

257. Money for the Soldiers; Robert Morris. — In Philadelphia there lived a very wealthy man named Robert Morris. His heart was in the cause. Washington begged him to raise some money for the soldiers. With what he gave himself and what he got from his friends, Morris raised \$50,000 and sent it to Washington, who paid it to his men. Robert Morris was born in England, but came to America when he was about thirteen years old. At the beginning of the Revolutionary War, he was one of the richest merchants in Philadelphia. He was a member of the Continental Congress and one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. He obtained large sums of money for the Continental Army and in this way was of great help in the campaign against Cornwallis. After the war, he framed a plan for paying off the public debt of the United States, but it failed because the different states would not agree to it. Robert Morris was one of the framers of our national Constitution and nominated Washington for president of the Constitutional Convention. After Washington was elected President, he offered the place of Secretary of the Treasury to Morris, which the latter declined. When an old man, this great patriot lost his fortune, and under the laws of that period, suffered imprisonment for debt.



ROBERT MORRIS

258. Battle of Princeton. — Washington soon went back to Trenton and encamped. Cornwallis began to close in on Washington with his troops, and at length fronted him with

a much greater force at Trenton. One night, January 2, 1777, he saw Washington's campfires twinkling in the darkness, and said, "I will bag the old fox in the morning."

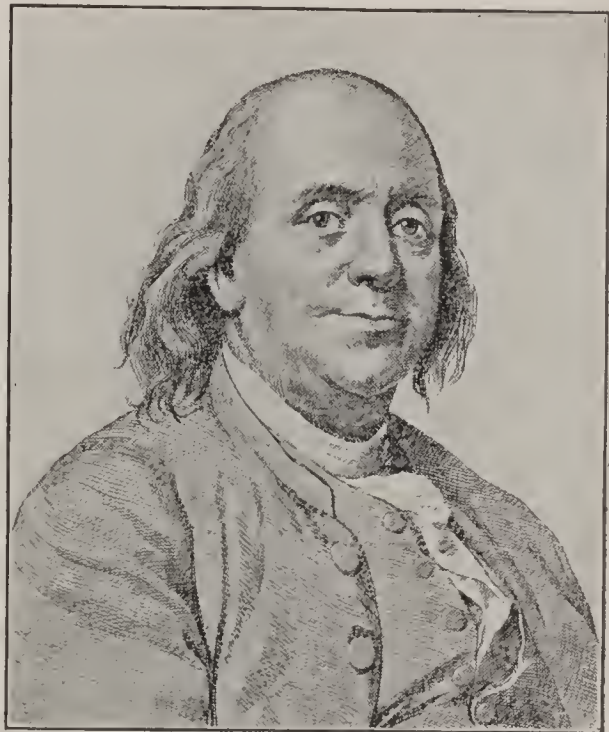
With the coming of daylight the British advanced in battle lines, to take an easy victory. But, the "old fox" and his men had vanished, even as they had vanished from Brooklyn Heights. Leaving a few men to keep up the camp fires, and to make a noise as of digging, so as to deceive the enemy, Washington had moved away early in the night, and at day-break had attacked the British troops at Princeton. Instead of fighting a hopeless battle at Trenton, he won a brilliant victory at Princeton and captured a great number of prisoners.

Washington's second victory forced the British to give up their purpose of taking Philadelphia, and made them fall back to New York. He had regained New Jersey, and he now threatened the British at New York. The Hudson River was now, more than ever, safely in the hands of the Americans.

259. Benjamin Franklin. — Soon after the Declaration of Independence, Franklin went to France to seek help for the new nation. While Cornwallis was chasing Washington, and the Americans seemed ready to give up, France was not inclined to give open aid. But after the victories of Trenton and Princeton, Franklin began to make headway in his work.

Officers skilled in the art of war began coming to America, to serve under Washington — Lafayette, Baron De Kalb, Baron Steuben, Kosciusko, and others less famous. Money was loaned to Congress freely by France and Holland, and Franklin was promised further help. In many ways, Benjamin Franklin was the greatest American of the 18th century. As patriot and statesman, he was active and public-spirited, wise and prudent. Born in Boston, in 1706, the son of a candle-maker, he went at an early age to Philadelphia,

where he founded a newspaper. Soon afterward he began publishing *Poor Richard's Almanac*, which became widely known. Postmaster at Philadelphia, he later became deputy-postmaster of the colonies, and for many years was a member of the Provincial Assembly of Pennsylvania. At the beginning of the French and Indian War, Franklin had prepared a "Plan of Union" of all the colonies, which was, however, rejected by the Colonial Congress sitting at Albany. The services and counsel of this wise man were as helpful to England during the French and Indian War, as to the colonists during the struggle for independence from the mother country.



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN

This great statesman was the defender of the rights of the common people. Sent by the Pennsylvania Assembly, he appeared for the first time in England in 1752, to demand that in raising money for public purposes the land owned by the proprietors of that colony should bear its just share of taxation. At the request of several colonies, he visited England twelve years later, and protested not only against the proposed Stamp Act, but against all taxing of the colonies without their consent. To his efforts was largely due the repeal of the Stamp Act. He earnestly tried to prevent war between Great Britain and the colonies. He was one of the makers and signers of the Declaration of Independence.

During the Revolutionary War, Franklin was in France as an agent of this country, and was successful in procuring, by treaty, that help from the French people which was so necessary to us during the war. When our independence was won, he was one of the signers of the treaty between this country



FRANKLIN AT THE COURT OF FRANCE

and England. Later, as a member of the executive council, he acted as governor of Pennsylvania, and was one of the framers of our Constitution.

Not only a sincere and steadfast patriot, the many-sided Franklin was a searching student of the wonders of nature, as well as a skillful inventor. He proved that lightning and electricity are the same force. He introduced the lightning-rod and invented the Franklin stove. For his activities in science and statesmanship, he was honored both here and abroad. After many years of ceaseless activity and usefulness, he died in Philadelphia in 1790.

260. The Campaign in New York State in 1777. — The British troops had been driven from New England, had failed to get control of the Hudson, and to take Philadelphia; nor had they gained a foothold in the South.

In 1777 the king's war managers planned to gain control of the Hudson and to carry the war into New England. They had ceased to consider the rebels a weak enemy, and they prepared to make their mightiest effort to conquer them. One army, under General Burgoyne, was to make its way south from Canada, by way of Lake Champlain to Albany, at the head of navigation on the Hudson. Another, under Colonel St. Leger, was to go by vessel up the St. Lawrence into Lake Ontario, and thence make its way eastward through the Mohawk Valley to Albany. Yet another army, under General William Howe, was to move from New York City, and make its way north to Albany.

261. Burgoyne's March. — Burgoyne's army was the best that the English had in the field. He started with eight thousand men, and was joined by a body of several hundred Indians. He landed and easily took Fort Ticonderoga, and then tried to overtake the Americans, who were retreating to Fort George. General Schuyler, with a small army of Americans, felled great trees across the roads, and in every way delayed the advance of the British, who for three weeks made scarcely a mile a day. At length Burgoyne reached Fort Edward, but both men and horses were suffering from starvation and weariness.

262. Bennington. — There were at Bennington, not far away, large stores of supplies for the American troops. Burgoyne sent a thousand Hessian troops to Bennington to take the supplies, and to get the Tories there to join his force. The farmers, under Stark, met the Hessians at

Bennington, and killed or captured nearly all of them, August 16, 1777. Instead of the Tories joining Burgoyne, many of them, maddened by the dreadful deeds of his Indian allies, joined the American army.

263. St. Leger. — St. Leger's army had made its way down the Mohawk Valley to Fort Schuyler, later called Fort Stanwix. Finding it too strong to be carried by assault, St. Leger and his troops surrounded it and tried to starve out its defenders. This gave the patriots of that part of the country a chance to gather, and a force under General Herkimer marched to attack St. Leger's command.

While the besieging force was weakened by the absence of those who had gone to fight Herkimer, the Americans in the fort rushed out and overran St. Leger's camp, carrying back into the fort much plunder.

Schuyler, facing Burgoyne, heard of the danger to Fort Schuyler, and sent to its aid a small force under General Arnold. Arnold by a shrewd trick, caused St. Leger to think that he was about to be overwhelmed by a great army. His Indians ran away, and St. Leger with his troops followed, not stopping until all were safe in Canada.

264. Howe's Army. — Howe's army, that was to come up the Hudson, was needed, for St. Leger's force had vanished, and Burgoyne's was in great trouble, and yet far from Albany, where the armies were to meet. This army, had it gone forward as expected, might have saved Burgoyne and St. Leger from attack. Through a blunder in England, Howe had not received his orders to go up the Hudson, and so decided to move on Philadelphia.

265. Howe Moves against Philadelphia. — The war-ships carried Howe's force of 18,000 men up Chesapeake Bay to Maryland, and from there he marched on Philadelphia. But

Washington had been busy and his army stood between Howe and Philadelphia.

Howe advanced, but was checked by Washington on the Brandywine River, at a crossing called Chad's Ford. After a severe battle, in which the British suffered most, their stronger force compelled Washington to fall back, and Howe entered Philadelphia in September, 1777.



SURRENDER OF GENERAL BURGoyNE AT SARATOGA

Washington attacked Howe at Germantown, near Philadelphia, October 4, and though he did not win a victory, he taught Howe that he could spare no troops for New York. Howe's failure to go to the help of Burgoyne sealed the fate of Burgoyne's army, now hard pressed by Schuyler's forces.

266. Burgoyne at Saratoga. — On September 19, Burgoyne in a battle near Saratoga made a desperate attempt to fight his way clear. Neither army gained a victory, and on October 7, Burgoyne tried again, with no better success. He fell back to Saratoga and there, on the 17th, he surrendered his army. General Gates had been placed by Congress in

command of the American troops, so the surrender was made to him. The credit of the victory was really due to Schuyler, and to Arnold and Morgan, who served under him.

As we have seen, the bravery of old General Herkimer at Oriskany and of Colonel John Stark at Bennington deprived Burgoyne of aid from St. Leger and of much-needed supplies. The Battle of Saratoga, one of the decisive battles of the world, was hailed with rejoicing in this country and in France. The victory was of greatest importance to the colonists as it marked the turning of the tide of the Revolution, and led to a treaty with France, by which she became our ally until our independence was won.

267. Valley Forge. — It mattered little where the British army was, Washington's part was to hover near it, threatening it all the time, thus keeping it from being active. The British gained nothing in taking Philadelphia; they would have been better off at New York. Congress could work as well in another city as it could in Philadelphia.

Winter was coming, and Washington went into winter quarters with his men, at a place about twenty miles from Philadelphia, called Valley Forge. From there he could watch Howe and attack him if he moved. It was a hard winter. While the British troops were well clad and well housed in Philadelphia, Washington's men, living in huts, and only half supplied with food and clothes, suffered terribly.

The winter was not wasted. Among the skillful officers that had come from Europe to help the Americans was Baron Steuben. All winter he taught the soldiers the drill of the Prussian army. When spring came, every man was a far better and more skillful soldier than he was when he went into camp the fall before. The British learned this, to their cost, during the year that followed.

268. The Treaty with France. — The year 1778 opened full of promise to the Americans. Franklin had succeeded in his effort to get aid from France, and a treaty had been made, in February, between that country and the United States, under which the two nations were to fight England. France lent great sums of money, and sent a fleet and a small army to America, to fight under the command of Washington. France also caused Spain to declare war against England.

There was joy in America. Then it was that our first national song was heard, and "Yankee Doodle" was sung in every village and camp. Notwithstanding the victory at Saratoga, and the consequent French alliance, which so strengthened the American cause, the English king still opposed the independence of the colonists. Bunker Hill, Lexington, Trenton, Princeton, and now Burgoyne's defeat, had not taught him that his unrighteous cause could not prevail.

269. English Leave Philadelphia; Monmouth. — General Clinton had taken the place of General Howe at Philadelphia. He knew that if his army remained there until the French arrived, Washington would attack him, and that with a French fleet in the Delaware, he would be forced to surrender. In June, 1778, he started with 17,000 men for New York, but Washington caught his retreating army at Monmouth, New Jersey, and gave battle. General Charles Lee, who had been captured by the British, had been exchanged, and Washington, not knowing his treachery, had given him his old command. At Monmouth, Lee disobeyed orders and Clinton's army escaped to New York. Lee was driven out of the army, but not until many years after peace was declared was it known what a traitor he had been. The fight at Monmouth was the last important battle that took place in the North.

Washington, following Clinton, crossed the Hudson and encamped at White Plains. Then, for nearly two years, he continued to watch and to threaten the English army at New York, while the war went on at other points.

270. The Iroquois Indians. — The Iroquois Indians in the Revolution fought on the side of the English and Tories.



GEORGE ROGERS CLARK

They had fought with St. Leger and Burgoyne, and in 1778, in parts of New York state and Pennsylvania, they had attacked the colonists with horrible savagery. In 1779, Washington sent an army to punish these Indians, and their homes were destroyed. This left them exposed to a severe winter and they fled to Canada, where hardships and sickness were so severe that their power was broken.

271. The West. — Virginia had always claimed territory beyond the mountains in the West. Foreseeing that England was to be beaten in the war, Patrick Henry, who was governor of that state, sent a force under command of George Rogers Clarke to hold these lands, that they might be claimed from England when peace should be declared. Clarke captured some forts in the West that had been taken from the French, years before, but were now held by a few British troops. Among these were Fort Vincennes in what is now Indiana, and the fort at Kaskaskia on the Mississippi River. Thus the West was won; for as Governor Henry had foreseen, it came to the young nation when peace was

declared, because it was held by the Americans. The Mississippi River, instead of the Alleghany Mountains, became the western boundary of the early United States.

272. Arnold's Treason. — One traitor to the patriot cause was Charles Lee, and another betrayer of his country was a man who, in the early part of the war, was one of its greatest heroes, General Benedict Arnold. He was the hero of Quebec, drove St. Leger back to Canada, and, more than any other, brought about the surrender of Burgoyne. He carried scars that were badges of honor, and he was admired and loved by Washington, who had placed him in command of Philadelphia. Arnold had been quarrelsome among his brother officers and although he was a very brave general he was selfish. Charges were made that his accounts were not correct and he was tried by court-martial and sentenced to be reprimanded by the Commander-in-Chief. Washington performed this task as gently as possible. Arnold, intent upon his own selfish interests, determined to turn traitor and go over to the British.

The British wanted control of the Hudson River, which could be had by holding the fort at West Point. Arnold promised to get command of it and contrive that they should capture it.

He asked Washington to give him command of West Point, and Washington granted his request. According to the bargain made with them, Arnold arranged for its capture by the British. For his treachery he was to receive a large sum of money and was to be made a colonel in the British army. A young British officer, Major André, was sent by the English general to arrange for the taking of the fort. He was arrested near Tarrytown, on his way back to New York, after a talk with Arnold, and papers concerning the plot were

found upon him. Arnold, discovering that his treason was known, fled from the fort to a British ship in the river, and escaped. During the rest of the war he fought on the British side. After the war he was despised and hated as a traitor both in this country and in London, where he died without friends. André was hanged as a spy.

273. John Paul Jones. — Little fighting was done on the ocean in the early years of the war, although the thirteen vessels ordered by Congress, in 1775, had been built. The first American warship to capture a British war vessel was the brig *Lexington*, commanded by John Barry. This boat sailed from Philadelphia. Commander Barry, who was born in county Wexford, Ireland, although only thirty-one years of age, had become a great sea captain as the master of a vessel. He was once offered a heavy bribe to give up a ship to the British but spurned the offer. On Christmas Day, 1779, Barry sailed from Boston for France to run the British blockade and take General Lafayette on an important mission to that country. At the close of the war the United States established a new navy and Barry was named the senior officer and given command of the frigate *United States*, the construction of which he had supervised.

The people of New Hampshire furnished a ship called the *Ranger* which did much damage to English shipping. John Paul Jones was the commander of this ship. He was born in Scotland. His father's name was Paul and he was named John Paul but several years after he became of age he added the name Jones. He was the first to hoist the American flag on a warship. The French had fitted up and armed a merchant vessel which they named the *Bon Homme Richard*.

Jones was made her captain and although she was not a strong fighting craft, what she lacked in strength was made

up by the bravery of her commander. Cruising off the coast of England, Jones fell in with the British war ship, *Serapis*, and running alongside he lashed the vessels together. Thus the fighting became hand to hand.

"Do you surrender?" shouted the English captain. "I have not yet begun to fight," answered Jones, though his



THE SIEGE OF CHARLESTON
After the painting by A. Chappel

rigging was in tatters, his timbers shattered, and his decks covered with dead. The *Serapis* had the better of it until a sailor of *The Richard*, fearlessly lashed in the rigging, threw firebrands into the hatchway of the *Serapis* and ignited the powder, which blew up the magazine.

274. The War in the South. — In 1778 the British landed in Georgia, took Savannah and some smaller towns, and in a short time the state was under their control. In 1780 a large part of the British army of the North, under Clinton and

Cornwallis, was sent south by sea, and landed at Savannah. Thence the army moved to Charleston, which was taken with three thousand prisoners. This was the first important success that had come to the British for a long time, and Clinton went back to New York, leaving Cornwallis in command.

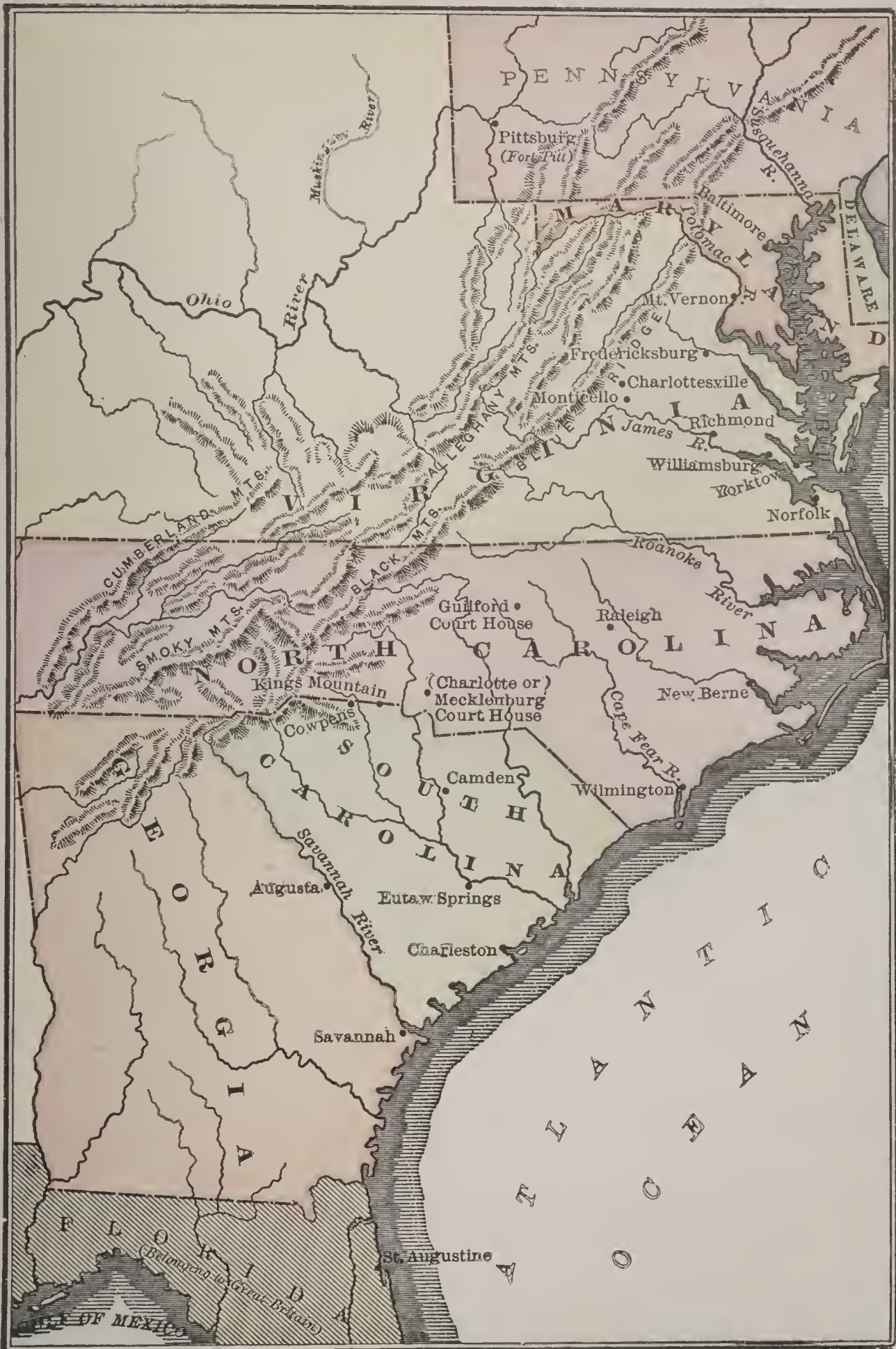
Small bands of patriots commanded by Marion, Sumter, and Pickens, who knew every foot of forest, field, and swamp of that wild country, constantly annoyed the British. The work of these roving bands was valuable, not only because of the trouble it made for the enemy, but also on account of the spirit which it stirred up among the people, thus preventing this section from passing into the hands of the enemy.

Washington, knowing how needful it was to help the patriots in South Carolina and Georgia, wished to send one of his best generals there with troops from the North. He chose General Greene for this purpose, but General Gates went to Congress, and succeeded in getting himself appointed in place of Greene.

275. Battle of Camden. — Gates went south and Cornwallis defeated his army at Camden, South Carolina, in August, 1780. Baron De Kalb fought gallantly, but Gates ran away and at length the patriots were forced from the field. Gates had brought upon the Americans one of the worst defeats that they had as yet sustained.

Encouraged by this victory, the British forced the fighting and by early fall had subdued South Carolina more fully than ever. The Tories had rallied for the king and there was bitter strife between them and the patriots of the state.

276. Battle of King's Mountain. — Moving to North Carolina, Cornwallis raised a force of about twelve hundred men, and sent them into the mountainous parts of South and North Carolina to rally the Tories there. The backwoods



REFERENCE MAP FOR THE REVOLUTION
SOUTHERN STATES

hunters and farmers attacked this force at King's Mountain, in South Carolina, defeating it disastrously. On hearing of this defeat, Cornwallis moved back into South Carolina.

Taught a lesson by the defeat of Gates, Congress now allowed Washington to send General Nathaniel Greene to take charge in the South. Greene had only about two thousand men, half clad, and with few weapons.

Thus, at the beginning of 1781, Washington, waiting for a chance to strike, was watching Clinton in the North, and Greene, his best general, with an almost hopeless task before him, was in the South.

Knowing that Cornwallis proposed moving into North Carolina, Greene, dividing his small force, sent Morgan against him in one direction, while he took another. Tarleton, the ablest officer that Cornwallis had, was sent to look for Morgan, who defeated him at the battle of Cowpens.

Cornwallis now began to pursue Greene's weak force, which had been joined by Morgan's band. Greene fell back across North Carolina into Virginia, where he received reinforcements, and coming back to North Carolina fought Cornwallis at Guilford Court House. Though the British were not driven from the field, they suffered a severe loss and fell back to the coast at Wilmington, whence they moved to Virginia. Greene in a few months had regained all of the South except Wilmington, Charleston, and Savannah.

277. Yorktown. — Cornwallis retreated into Virginia, to join Arnold, the traitor, who was in command of a force there. Opposed to Arnold, was a force of patriots under Lafayette. Cornwallis took command of the British troops and thought prudent to fall back to the coast, so that in case of need, the British fleet could help him. He went to Yorktown on Chesapeake Bay, which he fortified, and waited there.

It was now October, 1781, and there were British forces at Savannah, Charleston, Yorktown, and New York. Greene was looking after the forces in the South, Washington was

attending to those at New York, Lafayette was closing in on the force at Yorktown, and a French fleet bearing an army was coming from France.

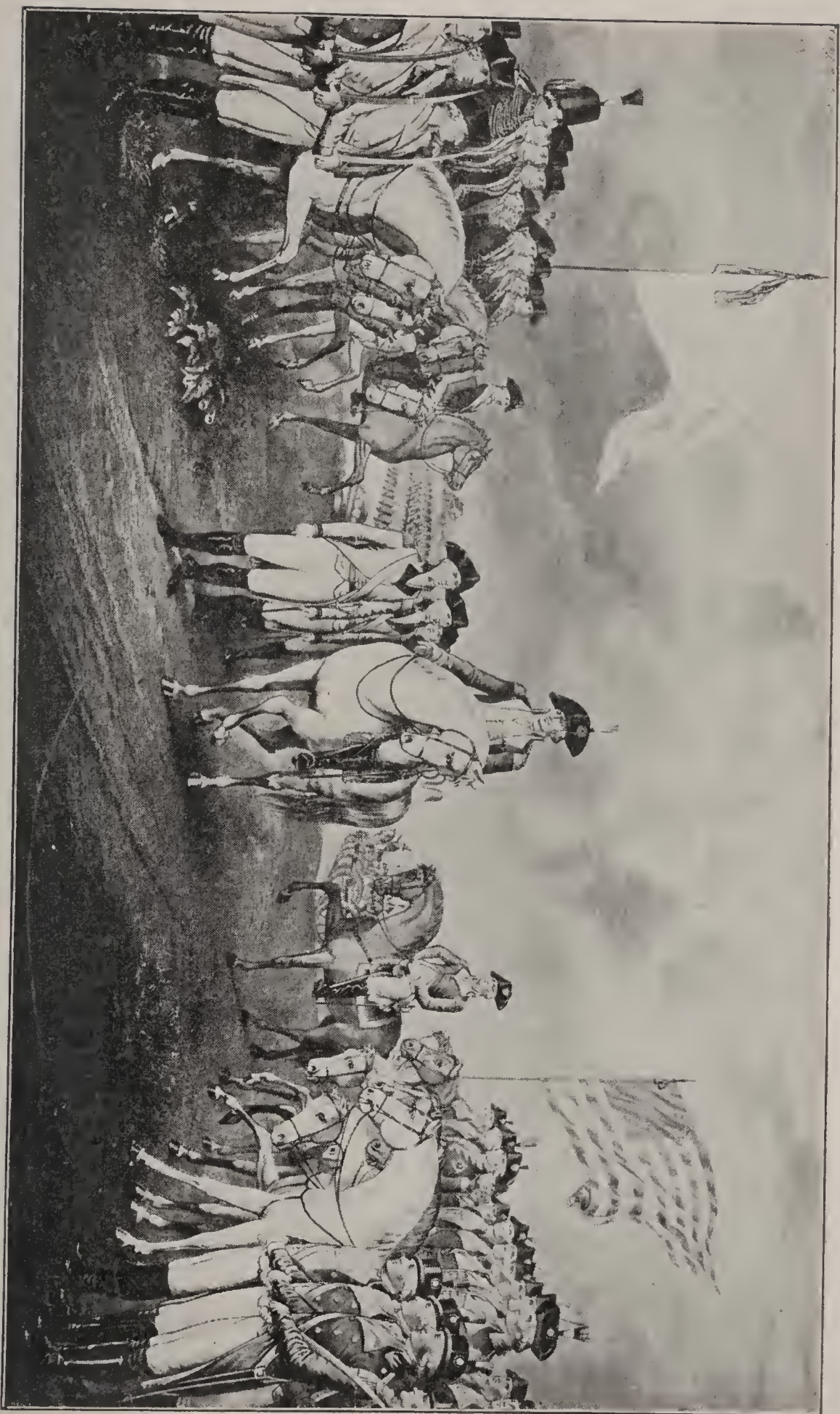
278. — The Surrender of Cornwallis. — Washington gave up his purpose of attacking Clinton and started south. This was one of the swift and sudden moves, such as he had made for Trenton and Princeton.



SKETCH-MAP OF YORKTOWN

AA = French and American batteries
 BB = French batteries C = British redoubt
 RRR = French ships

The great general knew that Lafayette had penned Cornwallis in at Yorktown. He also knew that a French fleet, that would keep the British fleet from helping Cornwallis, would soon be in the bay. General Clinton was bewildered by Washington's movement and at first took it to be a skillful plan to attack him. By the time he came to understand it, Washington was far away on his march to Yorktown, and too far to be annoyed by pursuit. In eleven days Washington's men marched three hundred miles, and Clinton's forces could not have moved fast enough to overtake them.



THE SURRENDER OF CORNWALLIS AT YORKTOWN, OCTOBER 19, 1781

From the painting by Trumbull, in the Capitol at Washington

The French ships, having driven off a British fleet sent from New York, met Washington at the head of Chesapeake Bay and carried his men to Yorktown. The army of Cornwallis was doomed. On October 19, 1781, Cornwallis and his army of about seven thousand men were captured.

279. Peace. — The British troops remained in Charleston, Savannah, and New York for many months; but the fighting was over and arrangements for a settlement were being made. On the 19th of April, 1783, exactly eight years from the day when the British fired on the Minute-men at Lexington, the Continental army was disbanded by order of Congress.

280. The Treaty. — In the peace settlement, there were many things to be considered. France and Spain were parties to the war. Each had much to say as to the terms of peace. France had given generous help and wanted to regain at least some of the territory she had lost in the French and Indian War. She had hopes also that some of the lands west of the mountains might come to her, and she did not favor giving it all to the United States. But the American statesmen, Franklin, Adams, and Jay, gained what they demanded, as follows:

1st. The new nation was to be absolutely independent of England.

2d. The Mississippi River was to be the western boundary.

3d. The fishermen of New England and all the rest of the country were to be free to fish, as much as they might choose, on the Banks of Newfoundland.

Florida was given to Spain. What was then known as Florida took in the whole of the peninsula and the land for many miles back from the coast along the Gulf of Mexico to the Mississippi River. As Spain already held the land west

of the great river, she was then the neighbor of the United States on the south and west. England, holding Canada, was neighbor on the north, the eastern front of the United States being the coast of the Atlantic Ocean. The treaty of peace was signed, at Paris, France, September 3, 1783.

281. The Greatness of Washington. — George Washington, our first President, was born in Virginia, February 22, 1732. In early life he was a public surveyor, and as such gained a knowledge of the surrounding country which was later of much value to him when he led his soldiers through the wilderness. He was a delegate to the Continental Congress and was chosen commander-in-chief of the Continental armies. His untiring energy caused the British to evacuate Boston, while the battles of Trenton and Princeton stamped him as one of the greatest generals in the history of war. After the surrender of Burgoyne at Saratoga, he was the victim of a base plot to deprive him of his command. This happened when, with heroic patience and bravery, he was holding together his starving and freezing soldiers at Valley Forge.

He gave his service to his country without pay, asking only that his necessary expenses might be paid.

As time passes we are better able to measure the greatness of Washington. His genius as a soldier had won him success against the skill of England's best generals, commanding her best troops, and armed with the best weapons then known. His greatness as a man enabled him to overcome treachery, slander, and lack of support. His second in command, forced on him by a weak Congress, was a traitor; his unpaid and starving troops were often inclined to leave him. There were jealousies in his army between troops from different colonies; and quarrels among his officers, many of whom, unfit for their positions, had been appointed by Congress against his wishes.

Never before, in the history of war, have the great qualities of any one man shone forth more grandly than did those of Washington in the great rebellion which his genius and devotion turned into a great Revolution.

SUMMARY

1. The British troops at Boston.
2. Gage sends a force to Lexington and Concord to destroy supplies.
3. Skirmish with the Minute-men at Lexington.
4. The British are attacked by the Minute-men at Concord Bridge and flee.
5. Gage is besieged in Boston.
6. Forts Ticonderoga and Crown Point with great stores of supplies are taken.
7. The second Continental Congress meets at Philadelphia.
8. The Battle of Bunker Hill, a dearly bought British victory.
9. Washington is made Commander-in-Chief of the Continental Army.
10. Attempt to take Quebec and Montreal. The attack on Quebec fails.
11. The British driven from Boston.
12. British attempt to take the Carolinas ends in failure.
13. Washington moves his troops to Brooklyn.
14. The king hires Hessian soldiers.
15. Congress adopts The Declaration of Independence. Fourth of July.
16. Battle of Long Island; Washington defeated.
17. Washington retreats to the Harlem River.
18. Battle of Trenton.
19. Escape of Washington's army. Battle of Princeton.
20. Promise of aid from France.
21. British campaign. Surrender of Burgoyne.
22. The British take Philadelphia.
23. Valley Forge.
24. France aids the colonies.
25. The British give up Philadelphia.
26. George Rogers Clarke occupies the Northwest Territory.
27. John Paul Jones defeats the British on the sea.
28. General Arnold turns traitor and tries to deliver West Point to the British.
29. The British victory over General Gates at Camden.
30. British defeats in South Carolina.
31. Greene and Cornwallis at Guilford Court House. Cornwallis retreats.
32. Greene drives the British out of the Carolinas.
33. Cornwallis retires to Yorktown.
34. Surrender of Cornwallis. Treaty of Peace. End of the War.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. Why was General Gage sent to occupy Boston with British troops? Why did he send some of his force to Lexington and Concord?
2. What two forts were taken by the patriot soldiers in the northern part of New York State, shortly after the fight at Concord and Lexington? In what war had these forts been taken before?
3. Why was the capture of these forts important to the patriots?
4. When did the second Continental Congress meet? Where? What was done by this Congress?
5. Give an account of the first great battle of the war.
6. Give an account of the movement against Quebec and Montreal.
7. When were the British driven out of Boston? How did they go and to what place?
8. Who were the Hessians?
9. What two battles were won in the winter of 1776-1777 by the Americans? Why were these victories important?
10. What leading American citizen was in France, seeking aid for his country?
11. What was the British plan of campaign for 1777? Name three British generals who were to take part in the campaign. What was each to do? What was the result of this British campaign? What American generals were opposed to the British during this campaign? Where did the principal fighting occur?
12. Why did Howe fail to do his part in the campaign? Where did he go? Who opposed him? What battle was fought?
13. Where was Washington's army encamped during the winter of 1777-1778? Who did valuable work in drilling Washington's soldiers during that winter?
14. Why did George Rogers Clarke go west with troops? Did he succeed?
15. What prominent American general became a traitor to his country? When? What fort did he try to surrender to the British? Why was the position of that fort important?
16. Give an account of John Paul Jones's greatest sea fight.
17. What American general was first sent to the Carolinas to drive out the British? Was he successful? Who was put in his place?
18. Name two important battles occurring in South Carolina. One in North Carolina.
19. When did Cornwallis surrender? Where? To whom? What treaty was signed ending the war? When? Where? What was settled by this treaty? What territory went to Spain by this treaty? What nation held the land west of the Mississippi River at the close of the war?

CHAPTER XII

ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION — THE CONSTITUTION

282. The States, after the War for Independence to the War of 1812.— Most of the people in these new states spoke English. There were, however, Dutch in New York, and scattered throughout the country were people who had come from different parts of Europe. Throughout the states there were differences in occupations and manner of living, owing to differences in climate and character of country.

There were no large plantations in the North as there were in the larger stretches of level country in the hot South. The climate in the northern states prevented the cultivation of rice and cotton, and thus, slave-labor not being needed there, slavery was gradually abolished in that section of the country.

The people of the New England states were ship builders, fishermen, manufacturers, merchants, and farmers, while those of the South were planters and owners of slaves.

There were disputes between the people of New England and those of the southern states with regard to the carrying trade. New England, which was a ship-building section, wanted to secure all of the business of carrying goods in ships by excluding British vessels from American ports. The southern states, on the other hand, desired that cotton, rice, and other products of that region, should be shipped in the vessels of any nation that wished to buy them. Tariff taxes were also laid upon goods carried for sale from one state to another, — and this caused ill-feeling between the different states. The eastern states were willing to give to Spain control

of the lower Mississippi River in return for the trade of that country and her colonies. Those Americans living on the banks of that river objected to this, as it shut off their goods from being carried to the sea, except upon such terms as the Spanish might choose. This caused ill-feeling between the people of the East and those of the West. Trouble between states also arose because certain states, which had large harbors for shipping, laid taxes upon goods coming to their ports and intended for other states.

283. Articles of Confederation. — From the time of the Declaration of Independence to about the close of the war, the states, in so far as they formed a nation, were governed by the Continental Congress. The Congress had been simply meetings of men sent by the several states to speak for them. There were no strong laws by which it could control. No state could be made to obey Congress.

As the war went on, it began to appear that there was need of a stronger union, to prevent the states from drifting apart. Without stronger bonds, there could be no United States such as the Declaration of Independence named.

In 1776 a committee of Congress drew up a plan of Union of the states called The Articles of Confederation. Many states were slow in ratifying the Articles of Confederation owing to disputes about claims to land west of the Alleghany Mountains. The states making no claims to such land said that it should be allotted to all the states alike. This difficulty was met when the states claiming these lands finally ceded them to the United States. Under the Articles of Confederation Congress alone had the power of making treaties, yet it could not enforce them, if the states withheld their consent. Under them Congress had not much more power over the states than it had before. It could declare war,

but it could not raise troops. It could declare a tax, but it could not collect it. As one great statesman well said, "Congress could declare anything, but could do nothing." After the war, when Congress wanted money with which to pay the troops, it had no power to compel the states to furnish it. The Articles of Confederation provided for no Supreme Federal Court, and the Congress consisted of only one body, representing not the people, but the several states. Each state had only one vote, no matter how many delegates it might have in Congress. The Confederation Congress could take no action without the consent of nine states, and the Articles of Confederation could not be changed or amended without the consent of all the states. Where there had been thirteen colonies, each one independent of the others, there were now thirteen states, almost as independent of one another as they had been before.

The common danger of war had kept the states together, but now that the war had ended, they were busy with their own interests and lost respect for the Congress that had no power. Some of the states at times even failed to send delegates to Congress. This lessened the chance of Congress having the nine votes necessary to pass any measure, and made it almost impossible for the Articles to be amended. Neither before nor after the adoption of the Articles of Confederation did Congress have more than slight control over the states. And yet the Articles had been framed to make a "perpetual union" of the states.

Most of the suffering of the troops during the war was due to the refusal of the states to supply money when it was called for by Congress. The United States, as far as they were united, had no President or officer to serve as a general governor of the nation.

284. Hard Times. — Money was scarce; hard times came. State after state began to issue paper money, as they had done during the war. The national money had become worthless, and the money of the states was not much better. England placed heavy taxes on all goods from the United States, thus injuring American commerce, while, under the Articles of Confederation, the United States Congress had no power, unless by consent of all the states, to tax English goods coming to this country. The nation was deeply in debt, and so was each state. So also were nearly all the business men. Hundreds of houses and farms were seized by the sheriffs and sold for taxes or for debts, and worthy people, for no fault of their own, lost their property. There was such a strong feeling against high taxes and worthless money that riots occurred in some parts of the country.



COPPER CENT STRUCK SOON AFTER THE PEACE

Daniel Shays of Massachusetts, who had been a captain in the Continental Army, raised a force of about a thousand men and going to Springfield, Mass., tried to seize the arms and ammunition at the national armory. This showed that the people were ready to fight against distressful taxes.

285. Leading Men. — Washington was as free with his advice, as a citizen, as he had been with his services as a soldier. People began to see that he was as great as a statesman, as he had been as a general. As he had been first in war, he was now first in peace, and more than ever he had come to stand first in the hearts of his countrymen. He declared that only a strong central government could save the country.

There were others than Washington who were great men. Alexander Hamilton of New York was one; James Madison of Virginia and Benjamin Franklin of Pennsylvania were others. John Jay was another; Thomas Jefferson, who wrote the Declaration of Independence, was yet another.

Alexander Hamilton was born in one of the islands of the West Indies in 1757. When fifteen years of age he

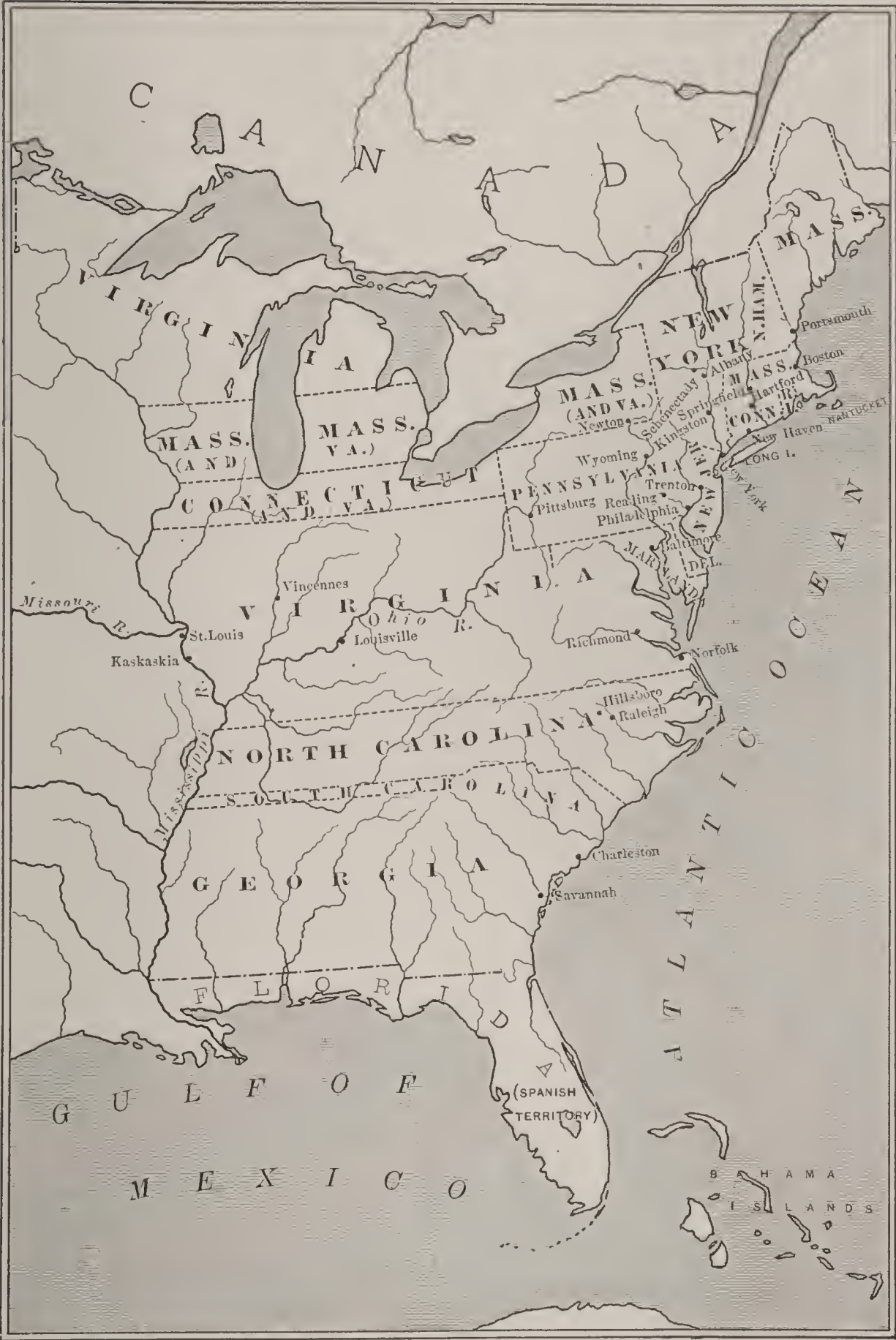


ALEXANDER HAMILTON

came to the American colonies. After attending school in New Jersey, he entered Kings, now Columbia College, in New York City. There were many Tories in New York at that time who were very bitter in their feelings toward the American patriots. While a student in New York, and still under twenty years of age, young Hamilton made an eloquent and patriotic speech in defence of American liberty.

This speech at once stamped him as a youth of much promise and brought him into public notice.

He served as a lieutenant in the battle of Long Island, covering the retreat of the Americans with great skill. He was with Washington at Trenton and Princeton, and led a desperate and successful charge at the siege of Yorktown. He was for a time secretary and aide to the commander-in-chief. Hamilton was a great leader in the cause of American independence, becoming after the war a lawyer and a member of the Confederation Congress. He was a delegate to the convention which framed our national Constitution and did more than any one else to secure its passage and



THE UNITED STATES AT THE CLOSE OF THE REVOLUTION

ratification. In this effort he was ably helped by James Madison and John Jay. He became secretary of the treasury in Washington's cabinet and proposed a scheme for raising money for public expenses, which was in use for many years. He used his influence to defeat Aaron Burr for the Presidency in 1800, and for the governorship of the state of New York in 1804. This so angered Burr that he sent a challenge to Hamilton to fight a duel. The two men met at Weehawken, on the shore of the Hudson River opposite New York City. Hamilton was killed and the entire nation mourned his loss. His grave is in Trinity churchyard, New York City.

286. The Ordinance of 1787. — One question before Congress was: What shall be done with the great country reaching to the Mississippi west of the mountains? By the treaty of peace, England had given up her claim to this vast stretch of land. Some of the states remembered that, as colonies, they had owned lands beyond the mountains. The people of Virginia said that their state reached to the Mississippi River, and a like claim was made by the people of North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. Connecticut claimed a wide strip west of Pennsylvania, reaching to the great river, and Massachusetts claimed another lying north of that of Connecticut. New York also had claims to western lands.

One by one, the states gave up their land to the nation, until nearly all the country west of the Alleghanies, east of the Mississippi, and north of the Ohio, belonged to the United States. Much of this great extent of land was rich and fertile, and people began to settle there. They urged Congress to make laws for that country, and in 1787 Congress passed the Ordinance of 1787 for the Government of the Northwest Territory. What was then the Northwest Territory is now the states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and

Wisconsin. Among other things it was settled: That there should be no slavery in that territory; that all living there should enjoy absolute freedom of religion; that public schools should be built and means found for keeping them up; that when there were people enough, the territory should be divided into states, which should be admitted into the Union of the United States.

This was the wisest and most important law that the old Confederation Congress, 1781 to 1789, passed.

287. Constitution of the United States. — As the weakness of the Articles of Confederation became clearly seen, it was determined to change them. This result was reached at a convention held at Annapolis in 1786, at which, however, delegates from only a few states were present. This convention urged that a meeting of delegates from all the states should be held for the purpose of changing the Articles of Confederation. In the latter part of May, 1787, men sent by their states met at Philadelphia to plan for improvements in the Articles of Confederation, and Washington was chosen president of the meeting. Instead of changing the Articles, the convention after four months' work framed a body of laws which was to take the place of them. This new body of laws was called The Constitution of the United States. Congress declared on September 13, 1788, nine states having agreed to it, that the Constitution was in force. Later all the states ratified it, Rhode Island and North Carolina being the last to do so.

288. Slavery. — There were many in the United States who had long believed that slavery was an evil, and in some states it had been declared unlawful. In 1780 Massachusetts took such action, and the freeing of the slaves was begun in Pennsylvania. At about this time New Hampshire forbade

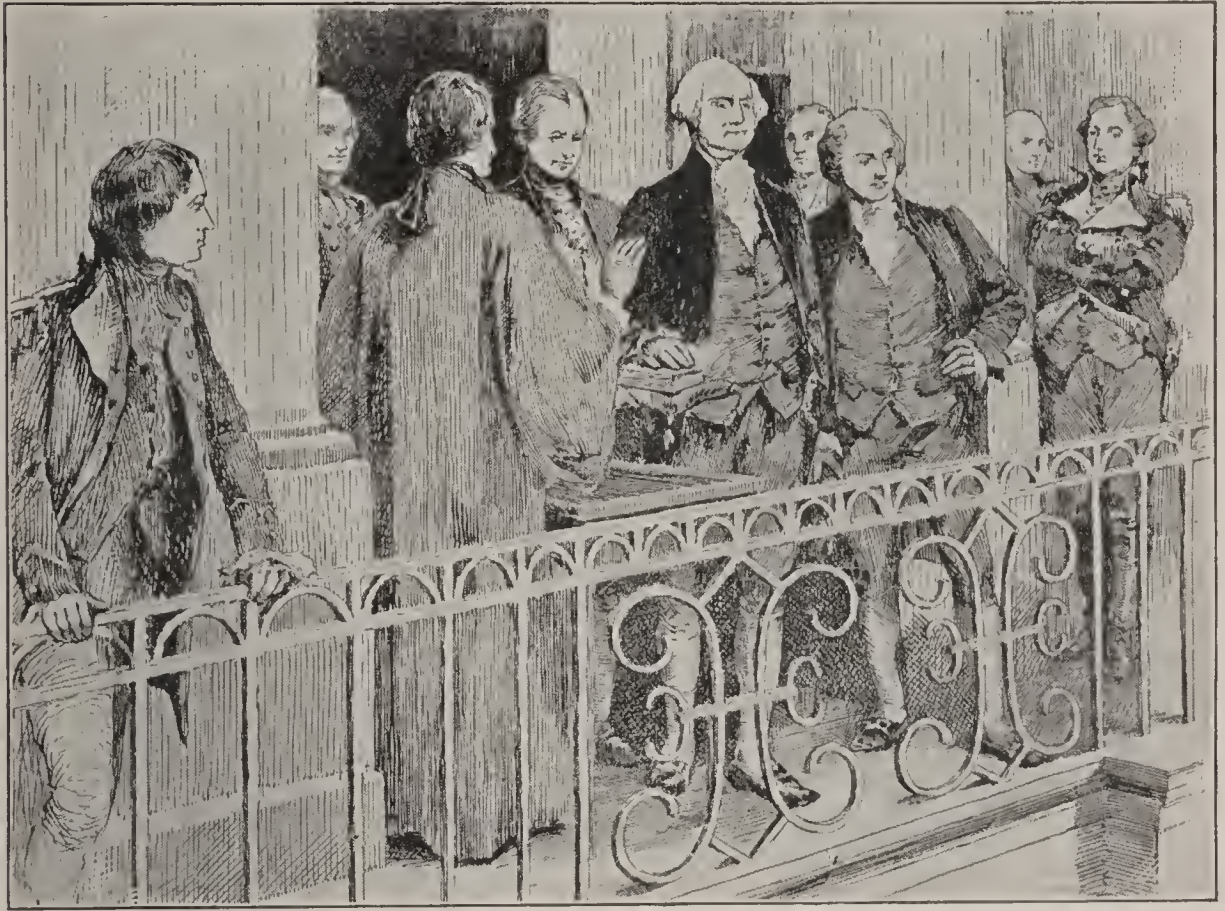
slavery, and so did Rhode Island and Connecticut. The feeling against slavery was strong in all the states. The law that forbade slavery in the Northwest Territory was voted for by members of Congress from the southern states, as well as by those from states that had taken action against slavery.

Some of the makers of the Constitution wanted the bringing of slaves to this country forbidden, but others objected to this. So it was agreed that the Constitution should not prohibit the slave trade until 1808. But it was not stated that even then it should be forbidden.

289. Industries. — Blessed by liberty and peace, the people of the United States began to prosper. Farming went on in all the states, and since the war manufacturing, no longer kept down by England, had increased. In 1783 clock-making began in Connecticut, where it is still an important industry. In that year the first woolen-goods factory was built, at Newburyport, Mass. At the same time the making of cotton sewing-thread began at Pawtucket, R.I., where it is still carried on. In 1784 an American ship made a voyage to China, which was the beginning of a great American ocean trade.

290. The First President. — Under the Constitution, the nation was to have a President; and who was so worthy to have that honor as George Washington? He was elected President, with John Adams as Vice-President, in February, 1789. New York City was then the capital of the United States, and Washington went to New York to take office. On April 30, 1789, he stood on the balcony of Federal Hall, where now stands the Sub-Treasury building in Wall Street, New York City, and took the oath of office. The men whom the President chooses as his immediate advisers and who are the heads of the various departments of the government,

form what is called the President's cabinet. The first National Congress formed the Departments of State, Treasury, War, and the office of Attorney-General. President Washington's cabinet was made up of the men whom he chose as heads of these departments. They were as Secretaries of



WASHINGTON TAKING THE OATH AS PRESIDENT

State, Treasury, War, and as Attorney-General — Thomas Jefferson, Alexander Hamilton, Henry Knox, and Edmund J. Randolph.

Other departments have been added to the foregoing from time to time until there are now ten in all, each headed by a cabinet officer. The six additional departments are those of the Navy, Post-Office, Interior, Agriculture, Commerce, and Labor.

291. Population; Character of the Country. — When Washington became President there were less than four million people living in our country, and of these about one-seventh were slaves. All, except perhaps a hundred thousand, dwelt east of the Alleghany Mountains. Indians lived in the West, and in all the states the land was largely covered with forests.

The cities were small, Philadelphia being the largest, with forty-five thousand people. The United States started as a new nation in a new country, and no other nation ever had such promise of wealth and greatness. Here was endless land, never touched by the plow, so rich that it would yield ample harvests for centuries. Here was a coast, hundreds of miles long, with the best harbors in the world. Here were great rivers, on which the riches of the land might be floated to the sea. Here was water power for machinery, that could be made to do as much work as could be done by millions of horses. The forests would yield lumber to supply the world, and the hills were filled with the ores of iron, copper, lead, and the precious metals.

As the country gave promise of great things, so did the people. They were bred from the best stock of the human race. They were gifted with good qualities. They were inventive, quick to see the bounties of nature, and skilful in making use of them.

292. Amendments to the Constitution. — It could not be expected that the Constitution as it was at first drawn would prove perfect. It was found that there were ways in which it could be made better. During Washington's Presidency ten amendments or additions were made to the Constitution as others have been since. The reasons for this are plain.

Some of the states were a great distance from others. There were differences in climate, in ways of living, and in thinking

in the different states. Thus the people could not agree as well about the Constitution as they would have done had all lived in one state.

There were few roads, and travel was mainly by water. People who lived far apart, since they saw and knew so little of one another, were more interested, each in his own state and its affairs, than in a plan for the government of all the states. Thus, to meet the wants of the different states, and to make more sure the success of the nation, nine other amendments to the Constitution have been made at later times, making nineteen in all.

293. Tariff. — England meant to prevent the new nation from succeeding in manufactures and commerce, because such prosperity would injure her trade. The English wished to sell in America, and at the same time prevent Americans from selling in England. American statesmen declared that the young industries of this country should be “protected,” and that taxes should be laid on goods from Europe, to make them more costly. This would cause buyers in this country to choose American-made goods, as being cheaper, and would give American manufacturers a better chance to sell. The taxes collected would be useful in paying the expenses of the government and in lessening the national debt. Tariff laws were passed in 1789, and thus began the “protective tariff” that has been such a matter of dispute in the politics of our country ever since.

294. The Capital. — It was thought best that the capital of the nation should be near the center of the country. The first Congress decided that after the year 1800 Washington should be the capital city, Philadelphia being the capital until that time. It was not believed that the population would extend so far westward as it has. No one thought that the

United States would be more than an Atlantic-slope country, and Washington lay midway between Maine and Georgia.

295. The Census. — According to the Constitution, the number of Representatives in Congress from each state is fixed by its population. To carry out this law the population of each state must be determined from time to time. So



WASHINGTON FROM THE POTOMAC IN 1800

the census was established, which provides for a counting of the people of the entire country once in ten years. The first census was taken in 1790, and since then a census has been taken every ten years.

296. Debts; Coinage; Banking. — During the war, Congress had borrowed great sums of money in our own country, and had also borrowed heavily from France and Holland. The notes given by the nation had fallen in value, because of doubt that they would be paid. But they were the nation's notes, and honor demanded that they should be met. The payment of the debt was a great political question. It was finally decided that all the country's debts should be paid.

The nation needed a system of coinage and, abandoning the English system of pounds, shillings, and pence, established a decimal system, using for its money cents, dimes, and dollars. Up to the time of the issue of American coins, the Spanish silver dollar had been in common use as a trading coin. In 1792 a mint for making coins was established at Philadelphia, and also a national bank called the Bank of the United States, with branches in the leading cities of the country. The question of having a national bank was made a matter of politics, many people believing that the Constitution gave the government no power to found one.

297. New States. — During Washington's first term of office, Vermont, which had been claimed by both New York and New Hampshire, was admitted to the Union as a state. The western part of North Carolina, known as Tennessee, and the western part of Virginia, called Kentucky, were also joined to the Union.

298. Parties. — As people became used to the new form of government differences of opinion arose and there sprang up two great parties. One, the Federal party, believed that the nation should have greater power than the separate states. The other, the Republican party, held that the nation had little authority over state affairs. This party was later called the Democratic-Republican party. The first party held that the nation was an indivisible union of states to be governed as a whole. The other inclined to the belief that the people of the United States, as a whole, could not bind the individual states by any agreement, if one or more of these states should decide to break it. This difference of opinion never ceased until, after many years, it was decided by a terrible war that this nation is not a mere partnership of states.

299. The French Republic. — In 1789 there was a revolution in France, when the people overthrew the kingly government and established a republic.

The States-Rights or Democratic-Republican party, led by Jefferson, was in full sympathy with the French Revolutionists and held that, since the French had helped us in our Revolution, we should help them. It was not wise for the United States to go very far in support of the French people in all that they were doing. So thought Washington and Hamilton and their followers, the party in power; for by this time, Washington had been re-elected and was now serving his second term as President. France, the republic, had declared war against England and Spain, and demanded that the United States should join in fighting those nations.

The Democratic party, led by Jefferson, favored the demands of the French, but the Federalists opposed them. In 1793, President Washington issued a Proclamation of Neutrality to the effect that the United States would not meddle with the affairs of nations in Europe.

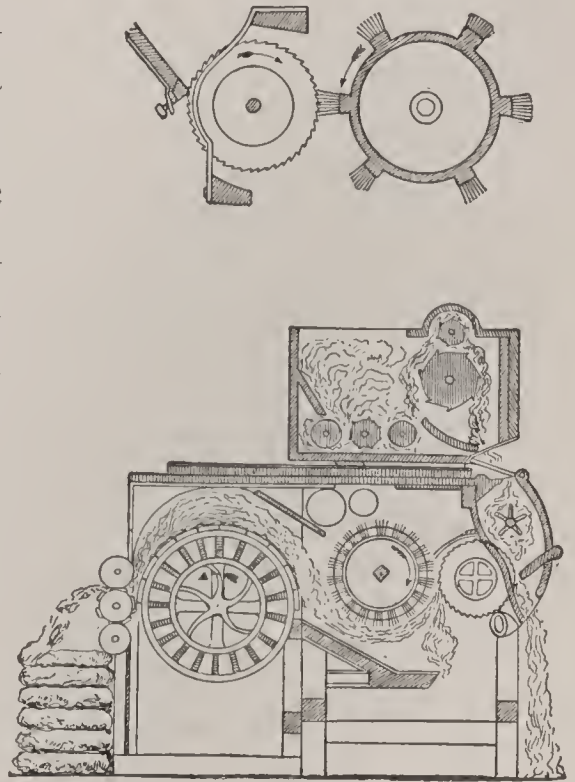
300. The Cotton Gin. — There was not much profit in growing cotton in those days, because of the slow and tedious labor of separating the fibre from the seeds.

In 1793 an ingenious New Englander, named Eli Whitney, was in the South where he saw slaves picking cotton from the seed by hand. He made a machine which he called a cotton-gin, by means of which hundreds of pounds of fibre could be separated from the seeds each day. This invention made cotton-growing very profitable and thus fixed slavery firmly in the South, because larger cotton crops could be profitably raised, and thus more slaves were needed.

301. The National Government Uses its Power. — The government needed money, and among other taxes, was one

on whiskey. Raising corn and making it into whiskey was the only way in which some farmers could get money. The tax on whiskey ruined their business, and they declared that they would not pay it.

It was a matter between men of the state of Pennsylvania and the general government. It was to be seen whether the nation could enforce its laws in a state. The nation's officers were at first driven away, while others, sent by the President to explain, were not given a hearing. At length an army of fifteen thousand men was sent to Pennsylvania, and at this show of force the farmers gave way. The national government had shown that it could not only make a law, but could enforce it in a state.



COTTON GIN

The upper figure shows Whitney's invention. The lower figure shows a later one.

302. America's Chance for Greater Commerce. — The war between France and England went on, and each nation swept the commerce of the other from the sea. The carrying of goods was done largely by American vessels, and they were very busy, earning great profits for their owners. Many were used to carry food-stuffs to the two nations. Wages paid to American seamen were higher than those paid by English shipowners. Many English sailors deserted, and took service on American vessels. This made British merchant-ships and naval vessels shorthanded.

303. Our Vessels Searched for Sailors. — England did not like to lose her sailors and she tried to stop their entering service on American ships. English cruisers halted and searched all American vessels to see if there might be British deserters on board. If there were any sturdy, strong-looking sailors on the American vessels, the British naval officers took them, whether they were deserters or not. The course of England made the followers of Jefferson more eager for war in behalf of France.

304. The Jay Treaty. — In 1794 Washington tried to stop the “impressment” of our seamen, by a treaty with England known as the “Jay Treaty.” It was not a fair settlement, and left some matters in dispute, England still holding that she had the right to search our ships for supposed English deserters. Jefferson and his party urged war; but Washington was wiser and war was avoided.

305. The Spanish Treaty. — The Mississippi River flowed for many miles through the Spanish country, and it was only by it that the American farmers in its valley could send products to the sea. The Spaniards would not let the goods go through, but in 1795 a treaty was made with Spain which opened the way for our western products to reach the sea.

306. A New President. — Washington might have been chosen President a third time but refused to hold the office again and retired to private life. In his farewell address, he charged his countrymen to preserve the Union, to keep it strictly honest in all its dealings, and to have nothing to do with the affairs of European nations. He advised the formation of a national militia, and also declared that public education was of the first importance and urged the forming of “institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge.” He died at Mount Vernon in 1799.

Washington was followed as President by John Adams of Massachusetts, a statesman whose ideas of the way the country should be governed were like those of the great man he succeeded. Thomas Jefferson was the new Vice-President. During President Adams' administration Acts were passed by Congress which were not liked by the Democratic-Republican party, whose leader was Thomas Jefferson. Under one of these, the President could order any foreigner who, in his opinion, was working against the government to leave the country. By another Act, any one who spoke or wrote too freely or severely about our government might be fined or imprisoned. This destroyed freedom of speech and the liberty of the press. These Acts made President Adams and the Federalist party very unpopular. The legislatures of Kentucky and Virginia declared that Congress, under the Constitution, had no right to pass such laws, and that each state could decide for itself whether laws passed by Congress were in accord with the Constitution or not.



JOHN ADAMS

307. France. — When Adams became President, France was governed by a committee of five called the Directory, and the American minister had been ordered to leave that country. This caused great anger, and some Americans said that war should be declared against France. But it was the part of wisdom for the young nation to gain strength, rather than to fight and lose it.

President Adams sent John Marshall and Eldridge Gerry to Paris to join the American minister Pinckney, who had been ordered from France. They were to meet the Directory and, if possible, arrange for peace. Upon reaching Paris they were called upon by agents of the Directory and told that America must lend France a large amount of money or further talk would be useless.

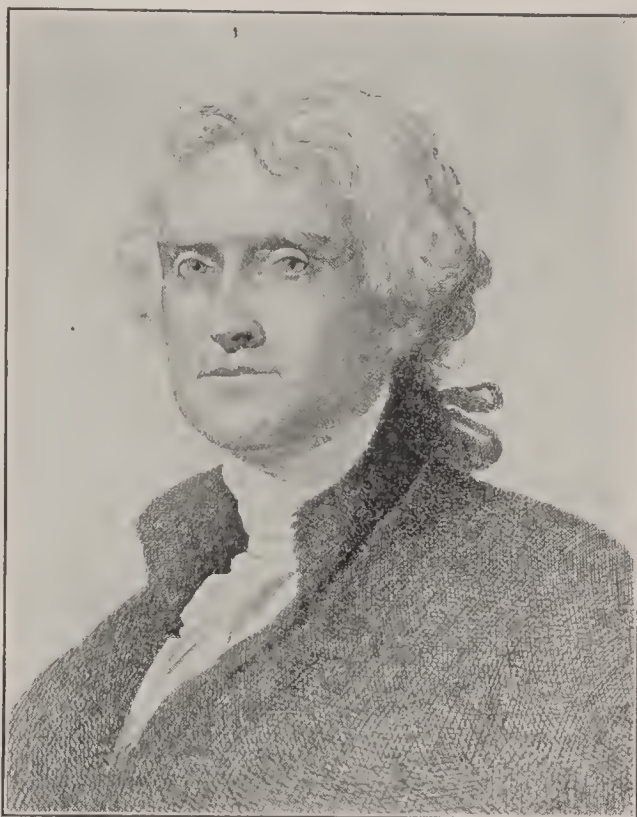
It now seemed that war with France was at hand, and the nation began to prepare for it. Washington was made commander-in-chief and the government created a navy. Naval vessels were built and strong merchant-vessels were bought and made into war-ships. The French, seeing that they were likely to have serious trouble, promised to receive any minister whom the President might send to France to represent our country.

308. Thomas Jefferson. — Thomas Jefferson, third President of the United States, was born in Virginia in 1743. He became a lawyer, and when the Revolutionary War began was a member of the Virginia House of Burgesses. As a member of the Continental Congress, he wrote and was one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. He was opposed to slavery and placed in the Declaration a clause to the effect that it was an evil; this, however, was stricken out. At the close of the Revolutionary War, Jefferson was governor of Virginia, and later became a member of the Confederation Congress. Among important measures which we owe to him, are the plan for the government of the Northwest Territory and the bill for the decimal system of currency. Jefferson was minister to France for four years, when he returned in 1789 to become secretary of state under President Washington. He was the founder of the Democratic-Republican party and was opposed to Alexander Ham-

ilton, the leader of the Federal party. Thomas Jefferson was not a powerful speaker, but was keen and scholarly. He and John Adams lived fifty years after signing the Declaration of Independence, each dying on July 4, 1826.

309. New Ideas in Government. — The election of

Thomas Jefferson as President in 1800 was a victory of the common people over those inclined to be aristocratic. Jefferson was a democrat, and carried on the affairs of government in a very simple manner. Instead of riding from the White House to the Capitol in a stately carriage, as Washington and Adams had done, he walked; and perhaps he was liked all the better for it. There was an absence of court form and ceremony at the White House while Jefferson was President.



THOMAS JEFFERSON

He believed in cutting down expenses. He said that a nation, like a business firm, should save its money, pay its debts, and practice economy. "What need is there to spend so much on the army and navy?" said he. "We are not at war, and are not likely to be, if we are peaceable. The trouble with France is over, and we do not need a large navy." This was not the spirit that Washington had shown, when he said, "In time of peace, prepare for war." Jefferson made the nation weak as a fighting power, but he kept down expenses, and paid off a large part of the national debt.

310. The Barbary States. — The people living on the African shores of the Mediterranean Sea, in the Barbary States — Tunis, Algiers, Tripoli, and Morocco — had long been in the practice of capturing the ships of the people of Europe, and making slaves of the sailors and passengers. Some nations of Europe and even the United States had paid money to the robbers every year in order that their ships might not be attacked.

In 1801 Tripoli demanded that a larger tribute be paid by the United States. This was refused, and when the Bashaw of Tripoli declared war, a fleet under Commodore Edward Preble was sent to the Mediterranean in 1803, and there was sharp fighting during the two years following. On one occasion an American frigate, the *Philadelphia*, ran aground in the harbor of Tripoli, and was taken by the enemy.

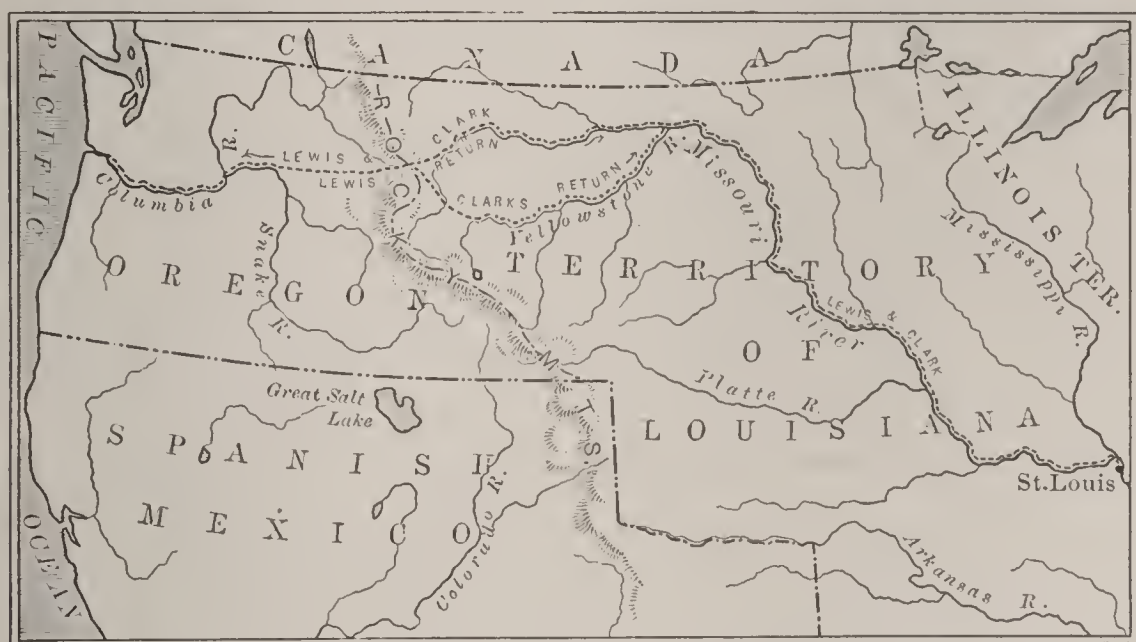
Stephen Decatur of Maryland, a young naval lieutenant in command of a small vessel, ran into the port one night and surprised the Tripolitan crew of the *Philadelphia*. After a few minutes of fierce fighting, the crew were killed, and Decatur, setting fire to the ship and completely destroying it, retreated without losing a man. By 1805 the Bashaw had had fighting enough and a treaty of peace was made.

311. Ohio. — In 1803 Ohio came into the Union as the seventeenth state, the first to be made out of the Northwest Territory.

312. The Louisiana Purchase. — In 1800 Spain sold the country west of the Mississippi River to France, and Jefferson, determined to settle the question of the right of way down the river to the sea, sought to buy the city of New Orleans. It is doubtful whether Napoleon Bonaparte, the French ruler, would have sold the city and have thus loosened his grip on the mouth of the river had there not been grave danger of

war between France and England. Needing money for war, Napoleon told his minister of state to offer to the American commissioners not only the city of New Orleans but the whole of the French territory west of the Mississippi River.

The offer was made and accepted at a price of fifteen millions of dollars. For this sum the United States had gained a new country as large as all it had before. After this purchase our country was bounded on the west by the



LEWIS AND CLARK'S ROUTE

Rocky Mountains and the Mexican possessions. This territory includes Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, part of Kansas, Montana, nearly all of Oklahoma and Minnesota, and large parts of Wyoming and Colorado.

313. The Oregon Country. — A vast country lay north and west of the nation's boundary line, in and beyond the region of the Rocky Mountains. In 1804 a band of explorers, known as the Lewis and Clark party, left St. Louis, then a little log-cabin town, lying on the Mississippi a short distance below the mouth of the Missouri, and made their way up

that river, which had been unexplored ever since it had been seen by Father Marquette and La Salle. At length, crossing the mountains beyond the source of the Missouri River, they came to another river flowing toward the northwest which, fed by many branches, grew larger as it flowed. It was the Columbia River, and following this they at last found themselves on the shores of the Pacific Ocean.

On this journey of Lewis and Clark was based the claim of the United States which, in later years, brought the nation ownership of the great Oregon country, from which have been made the states of Washington, Idaho, and Oregon. The explorers were gone two years and a half, returning with their wonderful story in 1806.

In 1804 Jefferson was elected to serve a second term as President. The country had prospered and he was greatly liked by the people.

314. Trouble on the Sea. — The war with England that Bonaparte foresaw came and was waged fiercely. On the land, France gained; on the sea, England, with her great navy, had the advantage. Each nation tried to injure the other by ruining its trade. They took each other's vessels; each declared ports to be closed against the other.

Our nation was prospering. If we could remain at peace, we could gain strength and wealth, for the war in Europe gave the commerce of the ocean to our ships. We took no part in the war. So well did the shipping business pay, that American captains gave higher wages to sailors than they could get for service in British ships, and many deserted from English merchantmen and war-ships, to engage in service on American vessels.

England complained that Americans were hiring English deserters from her navy, and said that she would take them



wherever she found them, even if it were on board American war-ships. Her naval officers kept up their practice of searching American vessels on the sea, and taking by force such deserters as were found aboard.

Wanting men so much, the English ship captains claimed as deserters, fine-looking men on American ships, who had never served in the English navy and therefore could not be deserters. Hundreds of manly American sailors were thus seized and made to serve in English war-ships against their will. The American people took for their motto, "Free trade and sailors' rights." It meant the right to trade freely on the sea, and the right to have their sailors protected from English outrage.

In 1807 the frigate *Chesapeake*, one of our war-ships, was met not far from our shores by the British war-ship *The Leopard*. The British captain declared that there were four British deserters on the *Chesapeake* and that they must be given up. The captain of the *Chesapeake* refused, and *The Leopard* opened fire. It was a time of peace for the United States, and the *Chesapeake* was unprepared to fight. Her captain made no attempt to resist *The Leopard*, and his ship was boarded and the men taken off.

American ships were carrying goods to England and France alike, when each of these nations began to seize such of them as it could catch going with goods to the other. Soon the business of carrying goods by sea became very risky and unprofitable and was given up, because our nation was too weak to fight and protect it.

315. Embargo Act. — At this point, Jefferson and some of his advisers thought of a scheme to bring France and England to terms. An act was passed by Congress, called the Embargo Act, which forbade American vessels to leave our ports.

This plan of shutting off the French and English from needed American supplies injured their trade and also that of the Americans. The great business of the New England states was the shipping trade; and the outlook was very gloomy when vessels owned by New England people lay in idleness at the wharves.

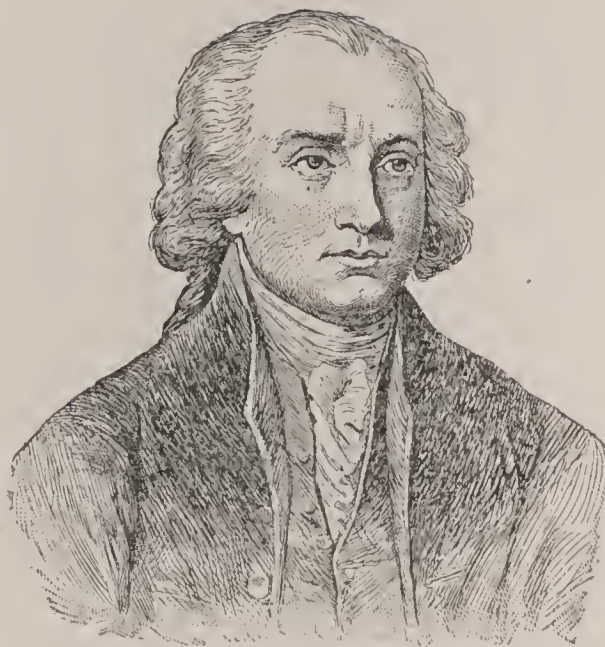
316. Election of Madison. — At the close of Jefferson's second term, he might have been elected again. But, like Washington, he believed that no man should hold the Presidency for three terms, and retired to private life. James Madison followed Jefferson as President, beginning his term in 1809.

317. Non-Intercourse Act. — Soon after Madison took office the Embargo Act was repealed, and a new law, the Non-Intercourse Act, took its place. It allowed American vessels to trade with all nations except England and France. Soon our ships were on the seas, laden with our goods, but both England and France continued to seize them.

SUMMARY

1. The Continental Congress lacks authority over the states.
2. A committee appointed to draft laws for a new government. Articles of Confederation.
3. Defects of the Articles of Confederation.
4. Ordinance of 1787.
5. Constitution of the United States adopted.
6. Slavery. Opposition to it in all the states.
7. The first President.
8. Constitution defective. Amendments made.
9. First tariff laws.
10. City of Washington, the new Capital.
11. The making of coin begins. Bank of the United States.
12. The political parties.
13. War of France against England. The United States remains neutral.
14. The cotton gin; its effect.

15. Internal revenue, whiskey tax.
16. England searches our ships at sea.
17. A new President, John Adams.
18. Quarrel with France.
19. Thomas Jefferson, third President. Economy and simplicity.
20. War with Barbary pirates.
21. Ohio admitted.
22. The Louisiana Purchase.
23. Oregon Country.
24. England still searches our ships.
25. Embargo Act against England.
26. James Madison, fourth President. Non-Intercourse Act.



JAMES MADISON

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. Why were the Articles of Confederation passed?
2. Did they give Congress sufficient power?
3. Name some defects in the Articles of Confederation.
4. Why was there ill-feeling between different states and sections of the country?
5. What was done to secure a better form of government and to form a "more perfect union" of the states?
6. What was the Ordinance of 1787?
7. At the close of the Revolutionary War, what was the feeling with regard to slavery?
8. How many amendments were made to the Constitution during Washington's term?
9. What were the tariff laws of 1789? Why were they passed?
10. What were the two early political parties?
11. What was the Proclamation of Neutrality? Why was it made?
12. How did the invention of the cotton-gin affect slavery?
13. Why did England search our vessels on the high seas?
14. What was the French Directory? How did they treat our minister to France?
15. Who were the Barbary pirates?
16. What was the most important event in Jefferson's first administration?
17. Who explored the Oregon Country?
18. What was the "Embargo"? The "Non-Intercourse Act"?

CHAPTER XIII

TROUBLE WITH ENGLAND

318. The War of 1812. — England and France held to their evil course toward our country during Madison's first term. England was very abusive. By this time, fully a thousand of our trading vessels had been taken by the English navy, and thousands of good American sailors were serving against their will in English warships. They were like slaves, compelled to fight for their masters, and flogged if they did not do their work well. The impressment of our seamen by England interfered with our trade, as ships were searched upon the high seas, and Henry Clay, a statesman from Kentucky, who afterward went to the Netherlands to help make the treaty of peace, insisted that war must be declared to protect American commerce. He was supported by John C. Calhoun and statesmen from other sections of the country. Insults and outrages from England could be borne no longer, and, though the United States was in no condition for fighting, war was declared against England, in June, 1812.

The country was even less prepared for war than had been supposed. It lacked skilful officers to plan and direct the fighting. The great man of America was dead, and the country sadly missed his counsel in peace, and his genius in war. The war went against the Americans at first, and failure after failure marked the progress of the earlier campaigns.

Among the army commanders were a few able men, such as Generals Scott, Harrison, and Andrew Jackson, but the army was small and made up largely of volunteers. The navy, too, was small, but it was good. Taught by sad experience the need of a navy, Congress, since Jefferson's time, had provided for the building of vessels. Among naval commanders were Preble, Rogers, Decatur, Bainbridge, and Hull, who had made themselves famous in the war with the pirates of the Barbary States.

In 1812 the state of Louisiana was admitted to the Union. It was only a very small part of the great Province of Louisiana, that had been bought from France. During the war the presidential election of 1812 took place, and Madison was elected for a second term.



DETROIT IN 1811

319. Hull's Surrender. — On July 12, 1812, the American army, led by General William Hull, a veteran who had fought under Washington, crossed the Detroit River into Canada. Hull told the Canadians that he would not harm them if they remained quiet; that his fight was against England and not against them. Many of the Canadians deserted and joined his army. He was about to march against a fort on the Detroit River, when, suddenly changing his mind, he retreated to the American side of the river. Some one had told him

that a large force of British and Indians was coming to attack him. Soon afterward Hull surrendered his force to a British army, much to the disgust of his officers and men. For his shortcomings he was tried and sentenced to death, but was not executed. It appeared that he had been careless but had acted in good faith, though with bad judgment. With Hull's surrender we lost an army, and the country from Detroit to Fort Dearborn, which stood where Chicago now stands. We also lost control of the Great Lakes. A second unsuccessful attempt to invade Canada was made during this year.

320. Our Navy in 1812. — The United States frigate *Constitution* was one of the best vessels in our navy. Her commander, Isaac Hull, was a nephew of General William Hull, who had surrendered at Detroit.

Hull sailed from Chesapeake Bay for New York, and was pursued by a fleet of English war-vessels, which was overhauling him, when the wind died out. He manned small boats with his strongest oarsmen that they might tow the ship along, and the enemy did the same with their vessels. The British began to gain, and it seemed that they would surely capture the *Constitution*. But Hull put into a boat an anchor at the end of a long cable, and told his men to row the length of the cable and drop the anchor. As it caught the bottom, the men began to wind in the cable with the windlass, and thus the ship was pulled ahead. Again and again was this done, and steadily the ship gained on her pursuers, when suddenly a squall arose. Calling in his boats, the commander spread sail, and when the squall struck, the noble vessel plunged ahead like a race-horse. Before the squall reached the British ships, Hull was making good headway. The thick rain hid his ship from the British crews, and when the storm cleared, she was out of sight.

321. The "Constitution" and the "Guerrière." — Later, Hull, cruising in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, sighted the *Guerrière*, one of the ships that had pursued him. It was a chance for a fair fight, and in thirty minutes the fire of the *Constitution* had so badly smashed the *Guerrière*, and had killed so many of her crew, that she surrendered. She was so badly shattered that she could not be taken to port, so Hull blew her up and sank her. The Americans lost seven men, while the British loss was seventy. The *Constitution* was little damaged, and from that day was known as "Old Ironsides."



THE "CONSTITUTION"

322. Other Naval Battles. — Captain Hull was succeeded in command of the *Constitution*, by Captain William Bainbridge, a man well worthy of the honor. On the last day of the year 1812, Bainbridge, while cruising near the coast of Brazil, met the British frigate *Java*, and captured her after a two hours' fight. He took off such of her crew as were left, and destroyed her.

The American war-ship *Wasp*, while sailing near the West Indies, fell in with the British naval vessel *Frolic*, and gave battle. Scarcely had the fight begun, when the *Frolic* lay a shattered hulk, with her crew nearly all killed

or disabled. Unfortunately for the *Wasp*, however, a big British battle-ship came up and took both the *Wasp* and her victim to Bermuda. The *Hornet* under Captain James Lawrence, while cruising off the coast of South America, met the British brig *Peacock* and sank her.

In June, 1813, Lawrence, in command of the *Chesapeake*, was challenged by the commander of the British ship *Shannon*, to sail out from Boston and fight. In the engagement Lawrence was mortally wounded and his ship was captured after very fierce fighting. His ship was taken to Halifax, Nova Scotia, where Lawrence died a few days later. His body was afterward buried in the graveyard of Trinity Church, New York City.

Of eighteen fights against British vessels the Americans had won fifteen. The world was surprised at the victories of the American navy, for England had long been called "The Mistress of the Seas."

323. Perry's Victory. — There was naval fighting on the lakes, as well as on the high seas. Oliver Hazard Perry, twenty-seven years old, a skilful naval officer, was ordered to Lake Erie to build a fleet of ships with which to fight the British, and to drive them from the lake. Perry went to the shore of the lake with a force of workers, and in the fall of 1813 built a number of small vessels. These, with a ship that he had taken from the British, and three small schooners that he had bought, made a fleet of nine vessels.

Sailing in search of the British fleet in September, he captured, after a desperate fight, all of the vessels of the enemy, and thus regained the lakes for the United States. Never before in all her history had England lost a whole fleet. This victory made the British abandon Detroit and the country along the southern shore of the lake.

324. McDonough's Victory on Lake Champlain. — A year later, in September, 1814, another lake victory was won by the Americans. A British army marched south from Canada, along the west shore of long and narrow Lake Cham-



PERRY AT THE BATTLE OF LAKE ERIE

plain. With it, along the lake, sailed a fleet of English war-vessels. The Americans had a few war-vessels on the lake, under command of Commodore McDonough. He skilfully arranged his few ships in such a way that the British fleet would fight at a disadvantage, and in not much more than two hours it was defeated. Without the fleet, the British army could not go on, so it turned about and made its way back to Canada. McDonough's victory saved New York State from invasion.

325. The British at Washington. — Late in the summer of 1814, the British landed five thousand men on the shore of

Chesapeake Bay, and made a dash for Washington. Six thousand Americans, untrained in arms, tried to stay the advance of the British, but they were quickly put to flight. The British entered the city and at once set fire to the Capitol and destroyed it. They then burned the President's house, the treasury building, and other government buildings. This was one of the great misfortunes of the whole war, since many records and collections of art were destroyed which could not be replaced.

326. The Star-Spangled Banner. — The British soon left Washington, and their next move was an attempt to take Baltimore. The fleet attacked Fort McHenry which defended the city, and although it was furiously bombarded, it withstood the attack. During the fighting at Baltimore, a patriotic citizen, held as a prisoner on one of the English vessels, wrote "The Star-Spangled Banner," which soon became and has since remained one of America's favorite patriotic songs.

327. The Desire for Peace. — The war became burdensome since its cost was very great. Many Americans believed that it was needless, and that the country had been drawn into it by those who did not have the foresight to count the cost, or judge of the outcome. Many who had been in favor of the war now tired of strife, and there was a general desire for peace. England, too, was tired of the war and, with a strong feeling for peace on both sides, there was a desire that the nations should come to an understanding.

By this time England had defeated France and crushed the power of Bonaparte. She could now turn all her strength against the United States. At once the greater part of her vast navy crossed the sea to the American coast, and her ships prevented American war-vessels from leaving our ports.

There was now no chance for ship-to-ship fighting. If an American naval vessel put to sea, she was sure to meet half a dozen British war-ships.

328. Battle of New Orleans. — In the fall of 1814 the



THE BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS
After the painting by Billings

British sent a strong fleet bearing an army to take New Orleans and gain control of the Mississippi River.

The army that came to take New Orleans was twelve thousand strong. They were the best soldiers that England had.

General Andrew Jackson, a young lawyer, had been sent into the South to raise an army and fight the Indians, who, under Tecumseh, had captured Fort Mimms and massacred its inhabitants. Jackson then went to New Orleans in command of six thousand raw militia men, many of whom had never been in a battle. Man for man they were as good fighters as could be found anywhere, for they were woodsmen and planters, all well used to shooting. They had that kind of courage that would make each man stand and

fight, no matter how many others might run away.

For several days the British were busy in getting ready to make their grand attack, and during that time there was more or less firing. At daybreak, January 8, 1815, a beautiful Sabbath, the grand assault was made.

The invaders came on again and again, the front ranks carrying short ladders with which to scale the earthworks. These were the best trained soldiers in the world but Jackson's Kentucky and Tennessee riflemen were the best marksmen in the world, and in the three hour battle twenty-five hundred men and officers, including the British commander, General Pakenham, were killed. The American loss was very small. Although at the time this battle was fought the treaty of peace had been signed (on December 24, 1814, at Ghent, Belgium) it was of utmost importance as it had a marked effect in creating in Europe a great respect for the valor of the American army.

329. Close of the War. — The war left the relations between the two countries much as they had been before. In some ways it had benefited the United States, since it made our people feel that this nation was able to defend itself, and that the rights of sailors on our vessels would be respected. During the war articles that we needed were made in this country and the Americans became more interested in home manufactures.

330. Barbary Pirates. — During our war with England, the pirates of the Barbary States began to prey upon our merchant ships in the Mediterranean Sea. At the close of the war a fleet was sent to the Mediterranean, under Commodore Decatur, to put a stop to this practice. In a very short time these people were subdued and they have never troubled us since.

331. The Tariff. — Soon after the war the merchants of Europe began to ship cargoes of goods to be sold in America. They were needed, and were sold to us for lower prices than our manufacturers could supply them. It seemed that the doors of our factories would soon be closed, because people bought foreign goods at lower prices than they could buy those made in our own country. To prevent this and to protect our home industries, a tariff was laid on foreign-made goods.

SUMMARY

1. The second war with England.
2. Second election of James Madison.
3. Louisiana admitted.
4. Hull's surrender.
5. The *Constitution* fights the *Guerrière*.
6. Other naval battles.
7. Perry's victory on Lake Erie.
8. Commodore McDonough's victory.
9. Capture of the city of Washington.
10. Battle of New Orleans; end of the war.
11. New Tariff Law.

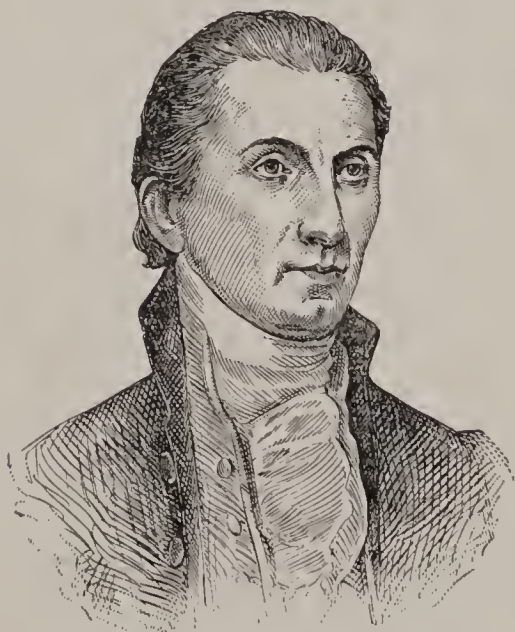
QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. What was the chief cause of the War of 1812?
2. Name and give an account of some of the land battles. Of some of the naval fights.
3. What battle ended the war? Give an account of it.
4. Why was a protective tariff law passed after the war?

CHAPTER XIV

FROM THE WAR OF 1812 TO THE MEXICAN WAR

332. President Monroe.—In 1816 James Monroe of Virginia, who had fought for his country with Washington, was elected President. The bitter wranglings between parties had ceased; the country was prosperous; it was a period of good feeling. Monroe was elected for a second term in 1820.



JAMES MONROE

333. Florida.—Between our country and the sea upon the south, lay what is now the state of Florida, which at that time was owned by Spain. There was war between the United States and some of the Indians in the

South, and, whenever our soldiers went after them, these Indians ran across the line and escaped into Florida.

General Jackson, being again in command in the war with the Indians, did not hesitate to follow the savage war parties into Florida. He took the town of Pensacola, and hanged two Englishmen who were helping the Indians. His headstrong course offended Spain, and there was danger of war.

President Monroe and his advisers saw that it would save much trouble if Florida should be made a part of our country. If it could be purchased, even by paying a large price for it,

war, which would be much more costly, might be prevented. So the Government bought Florida from Spain, in 1819, for five million dollars.

The country was fast recovering from the War of 1812, and many people moved to the West. Before Monroe's term ended, Illinois, Mississippi, and Alabama were admitted to the Union as states. Illinois was a free state, while Mississippi and Alabama allowed the ownership of slaves.

334. Rise of Slavery Question. — There had by this time arisen a great difference of opinion with regard to slavery. Power to decide for or against slavery lay in the two branches of Congress. The number of slave states was equal to that of the free states. By the call of states in the Senate, slavery and freedom stood evenly matched, two senators to a state. In the House of Representatives, however, the free states had many more members than the slave states, for they had grown so fast in population that they had many more congressmen. Wise men saw that there was a struggle coming between those who favored and those who opposed slavery. Hence there was a desire on the one side to have new states admitted to the Union as free states, and on the other to have them come in with slavery.

In 1818 the people of Missouri Territory asked that a part of it be made a state of the Union. No one objected to the admission of the new state, but there was much said as to whether it should be slave or free. Congress was divided on the question, and thus began the contest over slavery which ended, nearly half a century later, in a terrible war.

The people in the North, generally, opposed slavery, while those of the South were now in favor of it. The question was not whether slavery was an evil, but whether it should be extended into states yet to be admitted. Its enemies hoped,

and its friends feared, that if it was not allowed to spread, slavery would die. This difference of opinion set the people of one part of the country against those of the other.

335. The Missouri Compromise. — After much strife, Missouri was made a state with slavery, and Maine was admitted without slavery. Thus the number of slave and free states remained equal. An agreement was made, which became law, that all future states admitted from territory in the Louisiana Purchase lying north of the line of the southern boundary of Missouri, should be free. The law was called the Missouri Compromise, and it was thought that the slavery question was forever settled; but it was not. Hatred of slavery grew stronger in the North, while in the South the people became more firmly fixed in the belief that slavery was a great benefit to both the black and white races. Southern statesmen, sure that slavery brought prosperity, made all other questions give way to it, holding it to be the very life of the welfare of the South. Thinking that the North meant finally to destroy slavery, the southern people began to do what they could to save and strengthen it.

336. The Growth of National Pride. — At first, patriotism seemed bounded by state lines, but those colony-bred people who had been devoted to their states, more than to their nation, were passing away. Their children, familiar with the nation and its greatness, were taking their places. Men going abroad, especially those from the northern part of the country, no longer called themselves citizens of New York, or of Pennsylvania, but of the United States. The pride of the people of the new states was in the nation, as a Union of States, rather than in the state in which they lived.

337. Immigration. — Immigrants were rapidly coming to America. These new-comers, who had found prosperity

and happiness, loved the young nation that had welcomed them and whose laws protected them, and delighted in its growing majesty and power.

338. The Holy Alliance. — About this time Mexico and some provinces in South America rebelled against the authority of Spain and became republics. The idea of self-government was spreading, and rulers in Europe became alarmed. To check government by the people, the kings of Austria, Russia, and Prussia banded together in defense of kingly power. This union was called The Holy Alliance. It was believed, among other things, that the Alliance meant to restore to Spain the provinces she had lost in America, and it was feared that Russia was to be helped in gaining more power in North America. In those days Alaska belonged to Russia and was called Russian America. The Holy Alliance was a danger to the United States.

339. The Monroe Doctrine. — President Monroe saw that the scheme of the three monarchs might in the future work harm to the United States. In his message to Congress in 1823, he stated that our nation should take no part in the wars of European countries. He also said that we should at all times look upon attempts of European powers to colonize any part of the Western Hemisphere, as threatening our welfare, and that any such attempt would show an unfriendly feeling toward the United States. It was also stated by President Monroe that attempts on the part of European nations to oppress the people of any republic in this hemisphere, whose independence we had recognized, would be regarded as an unfriendly act.

340. The Tariff. — During Monroe's administration England, to help her colonies in India in their purpose to raise cotton, laid a tariff on American cotton to keep it out of Eng-

lish ports. At the same time, cotton from India was sent to England free from duty, that it might have a better chance to be sold. This tariff hurt the cotton-growers of the southern states, since they had been raising cotton, sending it to England to be sold, and then buying in England the very cloth made from that cotton. Now with the added tax they could not sell their cotton to English mill-owners. To keep English cloth from our market, as the English kept American cotton from theirs, a tariff was laid, higher than before, on cloth brought from England to this country. This resulted in the building of American mills and factories for the manufacture of cloth, and from that time, not only cloth but hundreds of other needful things have been made more and more in this country.

341. Manufactures; Inventions. —When people live in towns they have new needs and make new efforts. Better roads, houses, streets, parks, and other things to make life more comfortable come with the growth of towns and of manufacturing. There was so much work to be done in America that there were not hands enough to do it, and Americans began to invent faster ways of doing work.

The inventive ability of the American people has been encouraged by the government, and the granting of patents to inventors began as early as 1780. These secure to the inventor the profits of his invention, and from that time our nation has led the world in great inventions. Our manufacturing interests also have grown, until in the making of an endless variety of goods, and in the prosperity that comes from being busy, our country very much excels any other country in the world.

342. Improvements. —As a wise farmer improves his farm by building walls and fences, removing rocks, draining

swamps, and leveling roads, so do a wise people improve their country. Under President Monroe the work of building great highways between cities and across states, commenced. The best known means of moving goods during Monroe's administration was by boats and wagons. Settlement in the West grew rapidly, owing to the building of these great cross-country highways, upon which travel through the wild



ROUTE OF THE NATIONAL ROAD

and unbroken wilderness was much easier than it had been before. One of these roads was the Cumberland Road, extending from the Potomac to the Ohio River, upon which wagon trains carrying the goods and families of settlers were constantly moving westward. Another great national road from the Ohio to the Mississippi River was built later.

Railroads were unknown and much money was spent by the general government in building these great highways. More was expended by states and towns, and this work has been continued. Canals had long been in use in Europe, and it was seen that they were needed in America. The state of New York had begun work on a great canal from Lake Erie to the Hudson River, and during Monroe's administration this work had been nearly finished.

343. A New President. — In 1824 John Quincy Adams, son of John Adams, a former President, was elected to succeed

Monroe, and John C. Calhoun of South Carolina was chosen as Vice-President. In this election the other candidates for the Presidency were Henry Clay of Kentucky, the speaker

of the House of Representatives, and Andrew Jackson of Tennessee.



JOHN QUINCY ADAMS

Jackson came very near being elected, and believed that Clay and his friends had defeated him for the Presidency by using their strength and influence in favor of Adams. The fact that Adams appointed Clay secretary of state gave some color to this belief. There was much bitter feeling about the matter, and in speaking of it the words "bargain and

corruption" were freely used by the friends of Jackson, who at once set about preparing to elect him to the Presidency during the next campaign.

In the struggle of the election the time of good feeling in politics ceased, and there was more or less bitterness between the parties during Adams's term. There was a great difference of opinion as to the tariff, and John C. Calhoun of South Carolina, who had at first favored the protective tariff because he thought it would benefit his state, now saw that it would not. He believed that his state must always be a farming country with few manufactures. He was the great leader of the South, and from the time that he took his stand against a protective tariff, the South has been mainly in favor of letting in foreign goods without tax, or the admission of such goods at a low tax, laid only to get money to pay the expenses of government.

344. The Erie Canal. — By 1825 the Erie Canal, three hundred and sixty miles long, had been finished. It had cost a vast sum of money, but it proved to be worth many times its cost. Before the canal was completed, freight on a barrel of flour from Buffalo to Albany had been ten dollars;



MAP OF THE ERIE CANAL

afterward it fell to thirty cents. Goods could then be brought from the country about Lakes Michigan and Superior to Buffalo, thence moved by this canal to the Hudson and to New York City, and shipped anywhere from that port. New York City began to grow, and soon became the largest city on our continent.

A stream of canal boats, drawn by mules and horses, kept pouring the wealth of the West into New York, and a counter stream carried a wealth of manhood to people the great West. Land, the best in the world, was to be had at almost nothing an acre, and from the eastern states and England the home-seekers went to the West by way of the Erie Canal.

345. The Railroads. — A new means of moving goods and men, one that was to advance the nation wonderfully, the railroad, was in use before the close of Adams's term. A road with iron rails was built from Baltimore, thirteen miles west-



A RAILROAD TRAIN IN 1831

ward. From it has grown the great Baltimore and Ohio system; other railroads were soon built — one in New Jersey and one in South Carolina.

Steam-cars and steam-boats were the coming agents of greatness for the country. In colonial times, it took six days to travel

from Philadelphia to Boston, a journey which steam has reduced to as many hours. Commerce, in the early days, was confined to the exchange of goods between the American coast-region and Europe. Now, an American commerce, greater than that of all the world then, and greater than all that now crosses the Atlantic, plies shuttle-like, by boat and car, within the limits of our own country, east and west, north and south.

346. Andrew Jackson. — Ours was no longer an Atlantic-slope country, since a great part of it lay west of the Alleghany Mountains, where many people lived. Until this time the Presidency had fallen to men who lived near the sea. It was now claimed that that great honor should be given to

Andrew Jackson, a man of the West, who lived in Tennessee, and who four years before had been defeated for that office. His friends now rallied for him and he became President.

The parents of Andrew Jackson had been Irish immigrants, who with their son lived at one time in a log cabin. Jackson had been a rugged backwoodsman, afterward a soldier, and was now a statesman. What he had done at New Orleans and in Florida was well known, and the common people liked him. He was stern, simple, rugged, honest, fearless, self-willed, and obstinate. People called him "Old Hickory," for they likened his characteristics to the toughness of the hickory tree. He



ANDREW JACKSON

From the painting by Chappel

was a Democrat, voted for by the Democrats of the North and South, and was opposed to a high tariff.

347. The Nullification Doctrine. — During Jackson's term the question whether the nation was superior to a state was again presented by the course of South Carolina. In 1832 a new tariff bill was passed, and Calhoun declared that the national government had no right to tax goods coming from Europe to the people of his state. He contended that a

state could declare such laws of the nation as it did not like, of no effect. This was the Nullification Doctrine.

The people of South Carolina proceeded to put the theory of Calhoun in force, and to carry out the threats they had made. They declared, in convention, that the tariff law as passed by Congress was of no force in South Carolina — that it was null and void. They insisted that no duties should be collected on foreign goods coming into their state, and that, if force was used to collect them, it would leave the Union.

This was the theory of States Rights and meant that South Carolina had the right to decide what laws of the general government she would obey. The people of the slave states followed the lead of South Carolina, more or less, as that state supported the stand of Calhoun, its gifted son. The same old claim that had wrought such mischief when the nation was forming was now urged again, that this country was a group of states acting together by mutual consent, instead of a great nation, one and indivisible. The President declared that South Carolina must obey the law, and sent troops and naval vessels to that state to compel the people to obey. The duties were collected in Charleston, as in all other southern seaport cities, and South Carolina did not leave the Union.

348. The Spoils System. — Jackson believed that when a political party had won a Presidential election, the men of the other party who were in office should be turned out. The successful party alone were to enjoy the honors and the profits of holding office. The salaries of offices were, he thought, in a sense spoils won by the victorious party, as spoils might be won in war; and he said, “To the victors belong the spoils.” He put men of his own party into office throughout the country, a plan which was followed by all parties for many years.

It caused elections to become largely mere scrambles for office, and caused the offices to be filled by men who, while shrewd politicians, were unfit for their duties.

349. Jackson Reëlected; the United States Bank. — In 1832 Jackson was reëlected. He believed in himself, and if he thought that he was right, he cared nothing for what others might think. Most people thought that the United States Bank, which had branches in many cities, and in which the government money was kept, was a desirable institution. The President thought otherwise, and believed that the men controlling the bank had used their great power in politics to defeat him when he first failed to be elected, and that they had sought to prevent his last election. He ordered that the government money should be withdrawn from the bank, which was done, and the bank was closed.

350. The United States Bank and the Surplus. — In breaking up the Bank of the United States and causing the government money to be deposited in various state banks, the President made another mistake; for some of the money was lost. The nation was out of debt, there being a large amount of surplus money in the treasury, which was divided among the states, and some of it was wasted, causing financial distress.

While Jackson was President, two new states came into the Union, Arkansas as a slave, and Michigan as a free state. The states were still even on the slavery question, thirteen for it to thirteen against it.

351. Two Wings of the Democratic Party; Slavery. — The Democratic party was strong in the South, where people believed in slavery and states rights. One wing of the party held that a state might at any time leave the Union and become an independent republic. The other contended that

this is a nation with power greater than that of any state. "The states," said Jackson, "are in the Union and have no right to withdraw from it." In those times of danger, Jackson also said, "The Union: it must and shall be preserved."

During Jackson's two terms, the people of the South and those of the North drifted apart and a bitter feeling sprang up between them, caused by slavery and the difference of opinion about it. There was much talk in the South against the Union, and Jackson said that there was treason in the

hearts of many. He was also right in saying that the time would come when the Union would be broken because of slavery.



MARTIN VAN BUREN

352. Election of Van Buren. — In 1836 Martin Van Buren of New York was elected President. He was descended from one of the old Dutch families, and had been governor of that state. He was the first Democrat to be elected from a northern state.

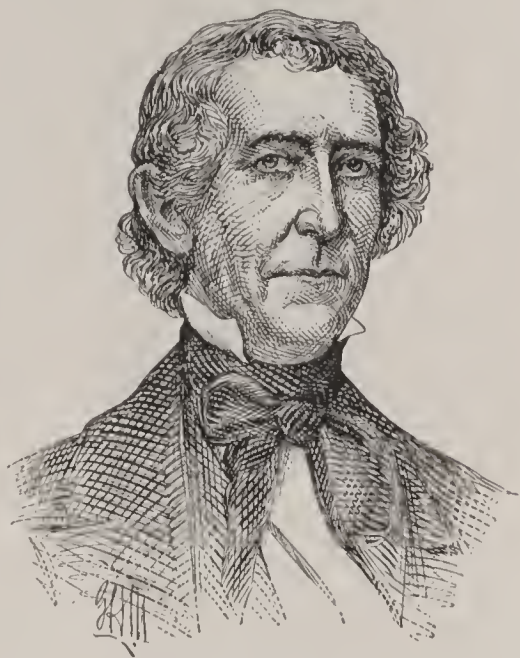
353. The Panic. — In 1837 the result of one of Jackson's mistakes appeared. The dividing of the nation's money among the states and depositing it in state banks, had made money so plentiful that it had led to unwise dealings, and during Van Buren's administration came the panic that such a policy was sure to bring.

354. The South Wants Texas. — There was a growing demand among the friends of slavery in the South for more territory from which to make slave states. They meant

that, in some way, there should be more slave than free states, so that there would be more senators in Congress in favor of slavery. They wanted the nation to take Texas as a territory, and knew that when it came into the Union it would be a slave state. Van Buren opposed the annexation of Texas, and the southern people disliked him.



WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON



JOHN TYLER

355. Election of Harrison. — In the presidential election of 1840 the Whigs, who were opposed to the policies of Jackson, elected William Henry Harrison of Ohio, defeating Van Buren, who had been nominated by the Democratic party. Perhaps the Democrats would have elected their candidate, had not the Whigs named for Vice-President, John Tyler of Virginia, a Democrat, for whom many Democratic votes were cast.

Harrison, like Jackson, was a man of the people, who had shown himself to be a good fighter in warfare against the Indians. After a month of service as President, Harrison died, and the country had a Democratic President.

356. Public Lands. — There was yet land for many thousands of farms in the West, and in 1841 Congress passed a law that it might be sold to settlers at a dollar and a quarter an acre, provided the buyer would live upon the land and raise crops from it. This offer, together with the fact that there were hard times in Europe, increased immigration. Every ocean steamer, and hundreds of sailing vessels, brought stout-hearted men and women to this country. Their sons and grandsons are now prosperous and honored citizens of the western states that they helped to build. By this time nearly all the public land east of the Mississippi had been taken, and the Louisiana Purchase region was filling up with people.

357. The Telegraph. — After Franklin had discovered that lightning is a result of electricity, people had thought no



THE FIRST TELEGRAPH MESSAGE IN THE MORSE ALPHABET

more about it. But one ingenious man, named Morse, had been trying to make this strange force useful. He found a way to send messages by electricity, through long distances, so quickly that their passage would take very little, if any, time. During Tyler's term, Morse asked Congress to give money enough to put up a line of wires from Washington to Baltimore. He said that, with such wires and the instruments he had invented, he could send messages from one city to the other in a few seconds. The money was appropriated, and he built the first telegraph line in the world. Messages are now sent through the air without wires, and by wireless telegraphy captains of ships communicate with one another, though they are hundreds of miles apart.

358. Texas. — The Republic of Mexico, once a province of Spain, consisted of several states, one of which was Texas, adjoining the United States, and many Americans had settled there on lands granted to them by the government of Mexico. These settlers were mainly from the southern states and they took their slaves with them. So well did they prosper that soon there were more Americans than Mexicans in Texas.

At length, Mexico passed a law prohibiting slavery in all the Mexican states, and when the Mexicans sought to put the law into force in Texas, these Americans resisted their authority, and Texas, seceding from Mexico, became an independent republic. Mexico tried to put down the rebellion, but the Americans under General Houston defeated the Mexican troops and, in 1837, Texas was recognized as a republic by the United States.

359. Election of Polk. — In 1844 James K. Polk of Tennessee, a Democrat, was elected President. The chief question

before the country then was whether the Republic of Texas should be annexed to the United States. This question was settled by the admission of this state to the Union in 1845, President Tyler, at the close of his administration, signing the resolution of Congress admitting Texas as a slave state.

Mexico had never admitted that Texas was an independent republic, and, as a nation, felt that the United States had acted very unfairly in causing Texas to secede, and in afterward making it a part of the United States.



JAMES K. POLK

It was the people of the southern states, rather than those of the North, who had brought about the secession and annexation of Texas. Slavery needed more room in which to spread, and the far-seeing statesmen of the South thought that they could make of Texas several slave states. In this plan they failed, for the people of Texas refused to have their great republic divided into small states.

Florida, purchased during President Monroe's term, was admitted as a state during the same year. Both Texas and Florida were slave states, but Iowa and Wisconsin were admitted as free states a little later, and thus there were still as many free as there were slave states.

360. The Oregon Country. — During President Polk's term there was a strong desire that the northwestern boundary of the country should be defined. The boundary line between the Oregon country and the British part of North America had not yet been determined. The land that lay between latitude 46° north and $54^{\circ} 40'$ north was claimed by both England and the United States.

There was an agreement of long standing that the people of both nations might live there. This agreement was to end after one year's notice given by either party to the other. By 1845 there were more than seven thousand Americans in this region, and notice was given by the United States that the agreement was to end in 1846. A settlement was made by which the parallel of 49° north latitude was to become the boundary line.

Jefferson thought that the Alleghany Mountains would always be the western boundary of the United States. Afterward, it was thought that the Rocky Mountains would be our western limit. Now, it was settled that our country extended to the Pacific, and later still, in our own time, we

have gained island territory on the other side of the Pacific Ocean.

When Oregon was given a territorial government, in 1848, Congress declared that there should never be slavery within the limits of the new territory.

SUMMARY

1. A new President, James Monroe.
2. Purchase of Florida.
3. Admission of the states of Illinois, Mississippi, and Alabama.
4. Disputes over slavery.
5. The Missouri Compromise.
6. Immigration increases.
7. The Holy Alliance.
8. The Monroe Doctrine.
9. Protective tariff.
10. Growth of manufacturing and invention.
11. John Quincy Adams, President.
12. Nullification in South Carolina.
13. Completion of the Erie Canal.
14. First railroads.
15. President Andrew Jackson.
16. The Nullification Doctrine.
17. The Spoils System.
18. Jackson re-elected.
19. Difference on the States Rights question becomes dangerous.
20. The United States Bank.
21. Arkansas and Michigan admitted as states.
22. Two wings of the Democratic Party.
23. Martin Van Buren of New York becomes President.
24. Panic of 1837.
25. President Harrison.
26. The public lands.



BIRTHPLACE OF ANDREW JACKSON

27. The telegraph.
28. Texas.
29. President James K. Polk.
30. Texas and Florida admitted (1845).
31. Fixing the national boundaries. The Oregon country.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. What territory did the Nation gain under President Monroe?
2. What was the Missouri Compromise? The Holy Alliance? The Monroe Doctrine?
3. What was the South Carolina Nullification Doctrine?
4. What great public work was completed in New York state in 1825?
When and where were the first railroads built?
5. What was the Spoils System?
6. Name a great invention made during President Tyler's administration.
7. What Mexican territory became a republic? When did this republic become a state? Why did the statesmen of the South want several states made from this territory?
8. When was the northern boundary of the United States fixed?



ZACHARY TAYLOR

CHAPTER XV

SLAVERY CAUSES TROUBLE

361. The Mexican War. — After Texas had been admitted to the Union, the United States claimed that the western boundary of the state was the Rio Grande River. Mexico declared that the state of Texas, one of the states of Mexico, had never extended west to the Rio Grande. Little attention was given by the United States to the claims of Mexico, and President Polk ordered General Taylor to march troops to the strip of land in dispute.

Mexico resisted the invaders and there were some slight clashes of small bodies of troops. A small Mexican force defeated a small American force, killing a few men.

The President sent a message to Congress in which he said that Mexico had shed the blood of Americans, and Congress declared war.

Mexico fought bravely and did all she could to oppose the invaders, but she was overmatched. General Taylor, with his stronger army, better prepared for fighting, was too powerful for the home-defenders of Mexico, and he won every battle. After the battle of Buena Vista, he came home with glory enough to gain the Presidency at the next election.

While Taylor had been active in Mexico with one army, General Winfield Scott had been busy with another, and he too was a victor in every battle. The Americans finally captured the City of Mexico, in the fall of 1847, and the war was ended.

By the treaty of peace, 1848, Mexico yielded the strip of land first claimed; and, partly by conquest and partly by purchase, then and later, the United States gained a great country north and west of Texas, extending westward to the Pacific Ocean and northward to the Oregon country. The territory thus acquired is now California, Utah, Arizona, Nevada, and part of New Mexico, Colorado, and Wyoming.

362. The Wilmot Proviso. — The land that the United States gained from Mexico was free territory, for Mexico had made it so by law. The question arose whether it should so remain. As early as 1846, Wilmot, a member of Congress from Pennsylvania, proposed that the Ordinance of 1787, that made the Northwest Territory free, should apply to any territory gained from Mexico. This bill was called “The Wilmot Proviso.”

It was opposed by the slavery party, and failed to become a law. The South meant that new states made from that territory should be slave states. Nearly all the people of the North were strongly in favor of preventing slavery in new states. Talk about the matter divided the people into two parties — one for slavery in the territories, and the other against it.

363. Election of General Taylor. — In the election of 1848, General Zachary Taylor, a Whig, who had distinguished himself in the Mexican War, became President. President Taylor died in July, 1850, and Millard Fillmore, the Vice-President, became President.

364. Admission of California. — The thirty states of the Union were equally divided on the slavery question in the territories. When California sought to be admitted as a new state, the question was, whether she should be a slave state or a free state.



365. Discovery of Gold.—Not very far from San Francisco Bay, where hundreds of years before, Drake and other rovers had sailed, Mr. Sutter had built a mill. His hired men were digging a ditch in the gravelly soil when one of them saw a little lump of something of dull reddish-yellow color. He



VIEW OF SAN FRANCISCO IN 1847

picked it up; it was heavy. He pounded it; it was soft. They gathered around him and tested it. It was gold.

More gold was found in other places, and the word went forth to the world, "Gold is abundant in California." Men flocked to this new territory from all parts of the world, but mainly from the northern states, and in 1849 there were a hundred thousand there. Slaves were not needed in a country where there were no large plantations and where the chief activity was gold mining, and therefore the Californians, most of whom were people who had come from the free states,

wrote a constitution for a state which shut out slavery, and asked for admission to the Union. There were many debates in Congress as to whether California should be admitted as a free state. Finally, by the Compromise of 1850, it was settled, among other things, that California should come into the Union as a free state. It was also settled that the question of slavery in other parts of the territory acquired from Mexico should be left to the people who might be living there when the territory was made into states.

366. Threats of Secession.—People of the South began to talk of taking their states out of the Union. Answering them, people of the North said that it would be better for free states to be out of the Union than to continue in it with slave states. There were foolish people, in both parts of the country, who babbled of secession whenever they could not have their own way.

In 1850 there were great debates in Congress on the slavery question, and speeches that still stand as models of oratory were made on both sides. Old statesmen passed away and new ones came. Calhoun, the great champion of the South, died, and to take his place as leader for the rights of the states was Jefferson Davis of Mississippi.

During the great debates, California became a state; and now the free states had the lead, never to lose it.

367. The Fugitive Slave Law.—An important law passed in 1850 was, that the officials of a free state should allow the arrest and return of run-away slaves that might be found within its bounds. Many people of the North, pitying poor black wretches escaping from slavery, aided them as they fled through northern states to Canada, which, as English soil, was a land of freedom.

The slavery-haters of the North despised the Fugitive

Slave Law. So general was the feeling against it that but few black fugitives were caught and sent back into slavery.

368. Immigration. — There had been a great famine in Ireland and people came by tens of thousands from that land of want to this land of plenty. Others came from other parts of Europe and population was growing very fast. The northwestern part of the Louisiana Purchase was filling with people, while few of the newcomers went to the southern states.

369. Steam. — By 1852 the use of steam for power was growing general. There were ten thousand miles of railroad, and hundreds of steamboats were busy on the rivers and lakes, while many great steamships were running from our harbors to those of Europe.

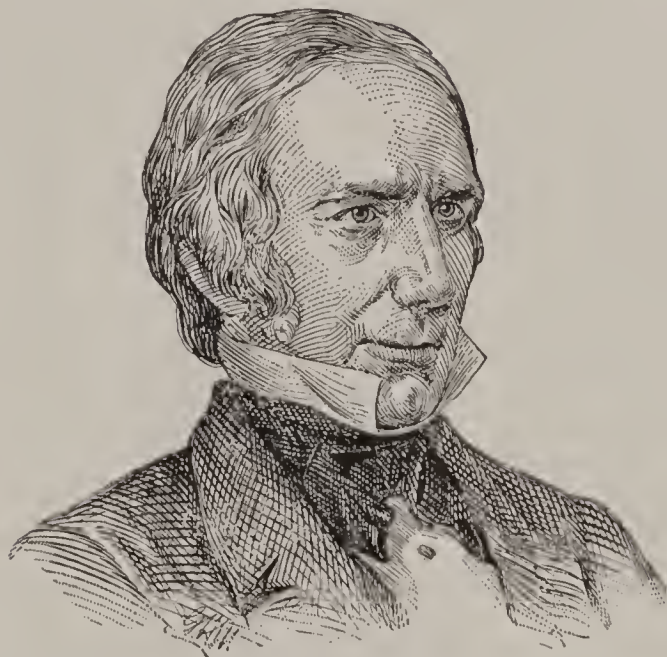
370. A President from the North. — In 1852 the Democrats elected as President a northern man, Franklin Pierce of New Hampshire. He was opposed by the Whigs, in what proved to be their last contest. Two great Whig leaders, Henry Clay and Daniel Webster, passed away while the contest for the Presidency was going on.

Henry Clay was born in Virginia in 1777. His father, a poor clergyman, died when the boy, Henry, was quite young. After his father's death, Clay attended a log-cabin school. Later he worked in a store, and afterward was appointed clerk of one of the Virginia courts. He studied law and at twenty years of age was admitted to the bar. He then moved to Kentucky, and became a member of the legislature of that state. In 1806 he became a United States



FRANKLIN PIERCE

senator. He was afterward elected to the House of Representatives and was a number of times its speaker. Clay was secretary of state under President John Quincy Adams.



HENRY CLAY

Three times defeated for the Presidency, Henry Clay is known as the great "Pacifier." His compromise measures became laws at critical periods of our history. He was an able supporter of the Missouri Compromise and was the author of the compromise measure of 1833 which lowered the tariff, thus preventing the trouble into which South Carolina was

drifting, by reason of that state's support of the nullification doctrine. He was also the author and supporter of the compromise measures of 1850. Disliked by Andrew Jackson, and disappointed in his own ambitions, he yet gave his best services to his country. He died in Washington, D.C., in 1852.

Daniel Webster was born in New Hampshire in 1782. He studied law and became a leading member of the Massachusetts bar. He was first elected to Congress in 1805, and was later in the United States Senate, an associate of those two great statesmen, Henry Clay and John C. Calhoun. Webster was one of the world's great speakers. His reply to Senator Hayne of South Carolina is one of the greatest masterpieces of oratory in the English language. In this great speech, Mr. Webster, among other things, defended the Federal Union of the states as against the theory of States Rights.

Webster was secretary of state in President Harrison's cabinet, but resigned that office during President Tyler's administration. Opposed to the annexation of Texas and to



WEBSTER REPLYING TO HAYNE

the Mexican War, he became secretary of state under President Fillmore. In a famous speech which he made in March, 1850, the people of the North considered that he favored slavery in California, and for this reason, he lost much of his influence in the northern states. He was a member of the House of Representatives when Henry Clay was speaker, and unlike Clay, he opposed the War of 1812. He was offered the nomination of Vice-President in 1848, but declined it. Webster was also defeated for the nomination for President in 1852, and died during that year.

371. Cuba. — The southern people desired more territory in the South for slave states. Several could have been made

in Cuba, if it had been part of the United States. Texas had been taken from Mexico for slavery; why could not Cuba be taken from Spain? Schemes were put on foot in the South to start a rebellion in Cuba against Spain. This, it was hoped, might lead to the United States taking such action as would bring on a war with Spain. It was believed that such a war would give us Cuba, and that island, once gained, could be made to give slavery new power.

Parties were sent from southern ports to help others in Cuba to start civil war; but they failed, and the Cuban leaders were shot by order of the Spanish government.

372. The Kansas-Nebraska Act. — There was a great area, a part of the Louisiana Purchase, lying on both sides of the Platte River, called the Platte Territory. In 1854 Congress passed a law which divided the Platte Territory into two organized territories — Kansas and Nebraska, and permitted the people living in these territories to decide, when they asked for statehood, whether they should have slavery or not.

The passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Act repealed the Missouri Compromise. Many Democrats, feeling themselves dishonored by the course of their party, left it. The Whig party, formerly the party opposed to the views of Andrew Jackson, became the Republican party and many Democrats joined it. The South sent settlers to Kansas, that they might at the proper time out-vote the men who wanted it to become a free state. The North began sending men there to out-vote the slavery men. There was a race between the North and the South, to see which should get more men into the new territory.

On election day, large numbers of slavery men came from Missouri and Arkansas, and cast votes for slavery. Their votes made it appear that slavery had won, and that when

admitted, Kansas was to be a slave state. Kansas at length became a state of the Union, free from slavery. The Kansas contest made the Republican party stronger, and very greatly weakened the Democratic party.

373. Japan. — The Kansas excitement did not prevent the national government from attending to other things. Japan had always held aloof from all nations and had no trade with foreign countries. In those days any article made in Japan was a great curiosity, because so few of them ever got out of that country. Our people wanted to trade with Japan; and in 1852 Commodore Perry, son of the hero of Lake Erie, was sent to Japan with a fleet to pay a friendly visit. A treaty of commerce was made, and from that day, Japan, copying American ideas and methods, has advanced, until it is now the foremost nation of Asia.



JAMES BUCHANAN

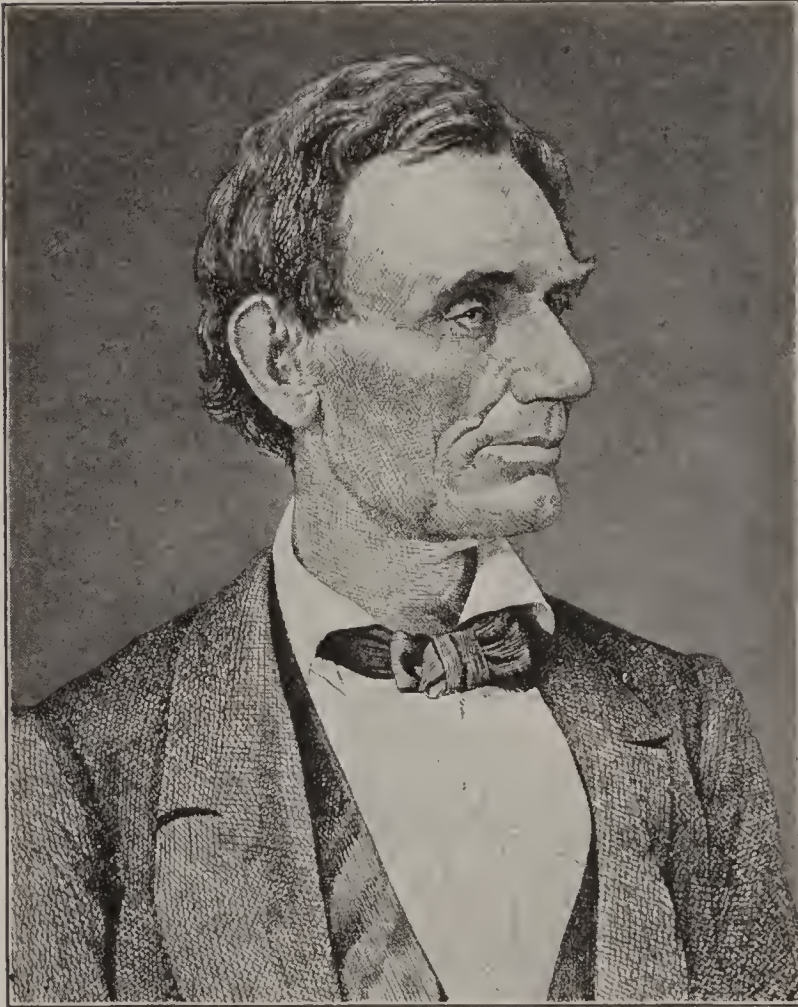
374. Election of Buchanan. — In the election of 1856 the new Republican party, which had become quite strong, opposed the Democratic party, but was defeated. James Buchanan of Pennsylvania, Democrat, was elected President.

375. The Dred Scott Case. — For some time a case had been pending in the United States Supreme Court concerning a slave named Dred Scott. Very soon after Buchanan became President, the Court decided the case, and in doing so laid down some new points of law. One of these was that a slave could neither sue in the courts, nor be sued. Another

was that a slave was the property of his owner, who could take him anywhere in the United States, and keep him as a slave. Yet another was that the Missouri Compromise

Law never had any force, even before it was repealed.

The Dred Scott decision seemed to put an end to the slavery question by making slavery lawful everywhere. The enemies of slavery were shocked, while its friends declared that all states and territories had been declared open to slavery by the decision of the highest court.



ABRAHAM LINCOLN

376. Abraham Lin-

coln. — Stephen A. Douglas, Democrat, senator from Illinois, was the leader of such Democrats as believed that the Union should not be dissolved. In 1858 he sought re-election to the Senate, and his opponent was a man of the people, a Republican, named Abraham Lincoln. The two men met each other in debate, at various places in Illinois, and discussed whether the people of a territory should decide the question of slavery. Douglas wanted to be the next President and in the debate Lincoln put some questions to him.

If he answered in one way, he would make enemies of the northern Democrats, and would lose the senatorship. If he answered in another, he would make friends of them and would be elected to the Senate. He favored the northern Democrats in his answer, and was elected. Lincoln was beaten, but Douglas had made enemies of the Democrats of the slave states, who would never vote for him for President.

The wonderful skill and statesmanship shown by Lincoln in the debates with Douglas made him favorably known to Republicans everywhere, and brought him forward as their candidate for President in the election of 1860.

377. John Brown. — The people of the South were always in more or less fear of an uprising of slaves. There were a few people in the North who favored the idea of slave-risings in the South. Of these few was John Brown, who was at first a farmer in New York state and later went with his sons to Kansas. There he and his sons fought those who tried to carry the territory for slavery by force.

Brown thought that if he could stir up the slaves of Virginia to fight their masters, the Southern people would be so terrified at the thought of further risings that they would be willing to free their slaves. The old man went to Harper's Ferry with a small party, in the fall of 1859, and tried to start an uprising of slaves. He failed, and was soon afterward tried for murder and hanged.



HARPER'S FERRY IN 1859

378. Admission of New States. — During Buchanan's administration Minnesota, Oregon, and Kansas were admitted as free states. Even with the Dred Scott decision to help slavery, it could spread no farther. It must stay where it was, and if so confined, it must die. The states now stood nineteen to fifteen against the spread of slavery.

379. The Election of Abraham Lincoln. — The Democratic convention to name a man for the Presidency met at Charleston, S.C. Northern Democrats nominated Stephen A. Douglas, while the southern disunion Democrats nominated John C. Breckenridge of Kentucky. The Democratic party was now divided and neither wing could win in the election.

The Republican convention was held at Chicago. Abraham Lincoln was nominated for President, and was elected.

380. Secession. — The people of the South firmly believed that they had the right to take their states out of the Union. The people of the North as firmly believed that no state had a right to leave the Union, and that secession was treason. South Carolina took the lead, as she had done before whenever there had been talk of disunion. Without waiting to see what the nation would do under its new President, South Carolina declared, in convention, while Buchanan was yet President, that she was an independent state, and spoke of the United States as a foreign country.

381. Confederate States of America. — While Buchanan was yet President the people of Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, and Texas seceded from the Union. When Lincoln became President, the seceding states had formed a new Union of their own, which they called the Confederate States of America. They elected as president, Jefferson Davis, who, since the death of Calhoun, had been the leader of the slavery wing of the Democratic party.

SUMMARY

1. Disputes about the southwest boundary line between Texas and Mexico are made the pretext for a war with Mexico.
2. Two leading American generals of the Mexican War were Winfield Scott and Zachary Taylor. The latter became President.
3. The Nation gains a vast territory from Mexico as a result of the war.
4. Wilmot Proviso.
5. California becomes a free state.
6. Threats of secession.
7. Death of President Taylor. President Fillmore.
8. The Fugitive Slave Law.
9. President Pierce.
10. Unlawful interference with affairs in Cuba.
11. The Kansas-Nebraska Act repeals the Missouri Compromise. Kansas admitted as a free state.
12. Japan.
13. President Buchanan.
14. The Dred Scott Case.
15. The Lincoln-Douglas debates.
16. John Brown's Raid.
17. Minnesota, Oregon, and Kansas admitted.
18. President Abraham Lincoln.
19. Secession. Confederate States of America.

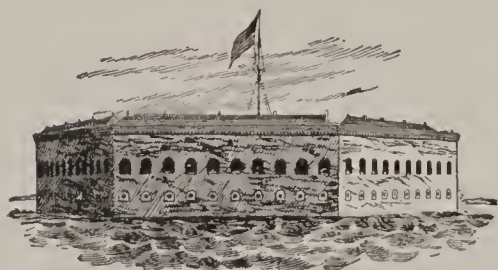
QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. What led to the Mexican War?
2. What territory did we gain as a result of this war?
3. What was the Wilmot Proviso?
4. What was the Fugitive Slave Law?
5. How was it regarded by the people of the North?
6. Why was it desired by the people of the South that Cuba should become a part of the United States?
7. What was the Kansas-Nebraska Act? To what events did it lead in Kansas?
8. Who went to Japan to open trade with the United States? With what success?
9. What was the effect of the Dred Scott decision?
10. What citizen of Illinois began to oppose the extension of slavery?
11. Which was the first state to secede? How many states seceded from the Union? What did they call themselves?

CHAPTER XVI

THE WAR BETWEEN THE STATES

382. Fort Sumter. — For the defense of Charleston, S.C., the United States had, years before, built a fort upon an island in the harbor. This was Fort Sumter, named for a Revolutionary hero of the state. At the time of the secession



FORT SUMTER

of South Carolina, the forts of Charleston harbor were manned by a few United States soldiers. Carolina demanded that the United States give up these forts, including Fort Sumter. When an unarmed vessel, sent by the gov-

ernment with food for the soldiers in Fort Sumter, drew near the island, she was fired upon by the batteries on the shore. Thus the state had begun war on the United States.

383. President Lincoln. — In his inaugural address Lincoln said that he had no right to interfere with slavery, directly or indirectly, and that he had no purpose to do so. He declared that no state could rightfully withdraw from the Union. He promised that he would use the power placed in him as President "to hold, occupy, and possess the property and places belonging to the Government." He told those present who were known to be in favor of secession, that the government would not assail the South; that there could be no conflict unless it was forced on the government.

There were many in the North, including General Scott,

commander-in-chief of the army, who thought it would be wise to allow the seceding states to withdraw from the Union.



THE SLAVE STATES BEFORE THE WAR

384. The South Begins the War.—Major Anderson, commanding Fort Sumter, was calling for food for his men, when the President ordered that the nation's soldiers, in the nation's fort, should be fed.

As soon as the President's order was known, the president of the Confederate States demanded the surrender of Fort Sumter and, on Major Anderson's refusal, the shore batteries opened fire. Within two days the weak garrison was overcome, and the American flag was hauled down in surrender. Four years, to a day, from the lowering of our national flag at Fort Sumter, the same shot-torn emblem of greatness was raised again in victory. The brave defenders of the South were vanquished, their states desolated, the flower of their youth laid in early graves, and slavery was dead.

385. Effect of the Capture of Fort Sumter. — As the news of the capture of Fort Sumter flashed over the country, North and South, patriotism broke into flame. In the South, the young men rushed to camp. In the North, the President called for seventy-five thousand volunteer soldiers, and from Maine to Texas, men made ready for war.

Virginia, Arkansas, Tennessee, and North Carolina also seceded, and there were then eleven States in the Southern Confederacy. The border states of Missouri, Kentucky, Maryland, and Delaware were slave states but did not leave the Union.

Richmond, capital of Virginia, became the capital of the Confederate States.

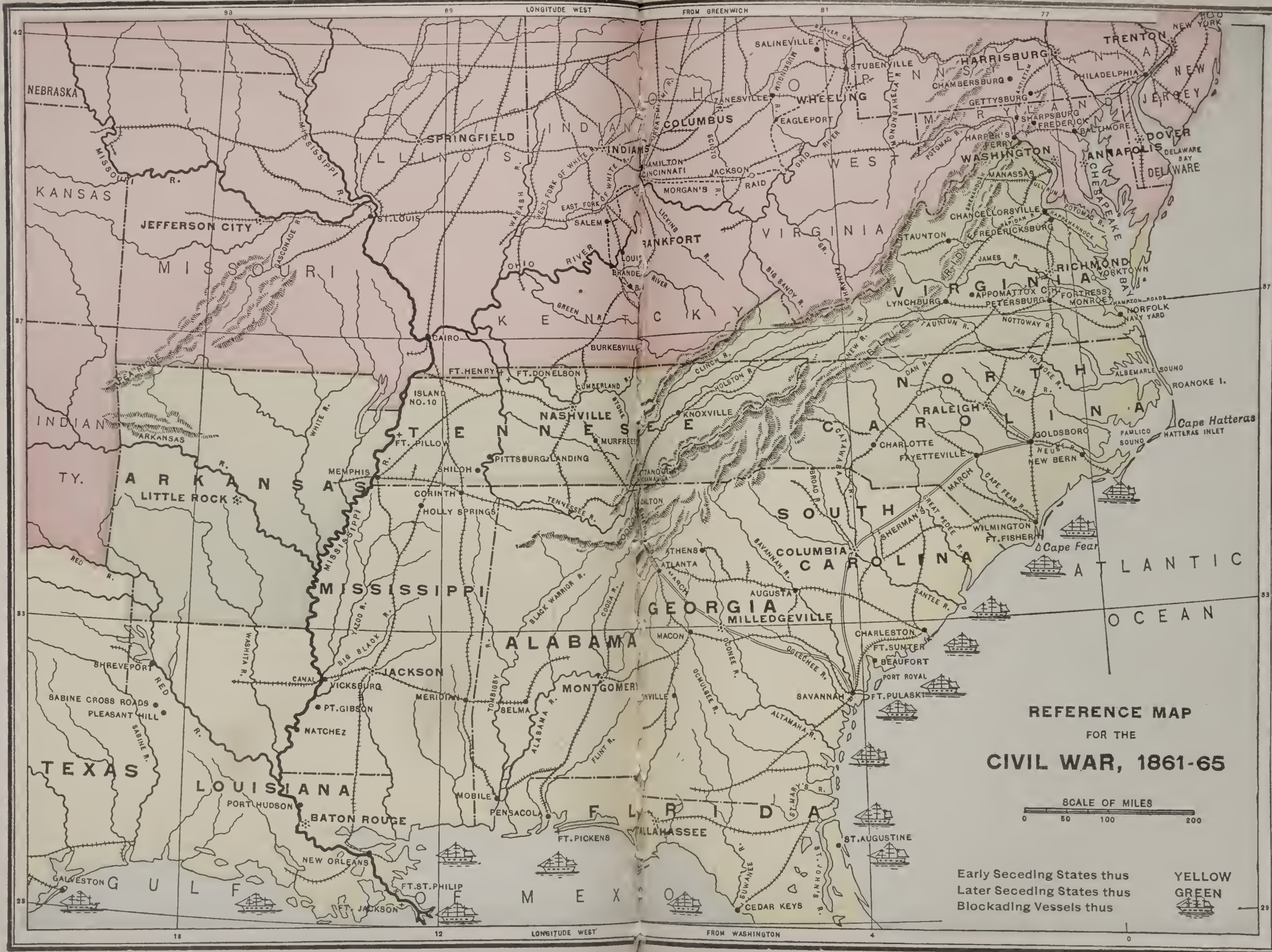
386. Condition of the South. — The South was unprepared for war. It takes more than men to carry on war, for those who fight must be armed, clothed, and fed by those who stay at home. The South raised cotton and tobacco, but was not a manufacturing country.

It had always depended on its crops for its needs and had traded largely with Europe. It meant to trade cotton for arms, clothes, and everything that its soldiers needed in the field.

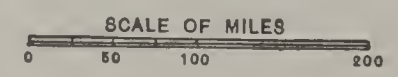
387. The Blockade. — To get supplies and to send out privateers, the South needed open harbors and ports. Lincoln, seeing how important it was that the ports of the South should be closed to commerce, sent war-ships to blockade the harbors. No vessel could go into or out of a southern port except by running through the fire of Union war-ships. The



A SOUTHERN PLANTER



REFERENCE MAP
FOR THE
CIVIL WAR, 1861-65



Early Seceding States thus
Later Seceding States thus
Blockading Vessels thus



blockade soon brought the South to severe want for the necessities of life as well as for things needful in warfare. Some vessels ran the blockade successfully, but many were captured and some were sunk. More than fifteen hundred were taken or sunk during the war. Because it could not be sent out of the country, cotton was as cheap as five cents a pound in Charleston, while English manufacturers were offering two dollars and a half a pound for it in Liverpool, England. The blockade finally broke down the Confederacy and made its war a failure.

388. Preparation. — Now came a period of getting ready. Troops were drilling — North and South. The people on both sides grew restless. “Why do not our soldiers fight?” asked those of the North. “Why do not our soldiers whip the Yankees?” asked those of the South. “On to Washington!” said one. “On to Richmond!” said the other. Both were over-sure; both had much to learn.

389. Bull Run. — In July, 1861, General McDowell with a Union army was in front of Washington, while General Beauregard with a much smaller Confederate force stood guard over Richmond, about thirty miles southwest of Washington, near a little stream called Bull Run. From this point he could defend Richmond or attack Washington. General McDowell marched against Beauregard and engaged his force at Bull Run, July 21. The Confederates, ably led by “Stonewall” Jackson and Generals Beauregard and Johnston, were constantly receiving re-enforcements, while the expected



UNION SOLDIER IN
UNIFORM

help for the Federal troops did not arrive. In the afternoon a spirited attack was made by the Confederates on the flank and rear of the Federal forces. The Union army was routed and retreated in mad haste to Washington. The defeat at Bull Run taught the North that war is a serious thing, and that victories in the field can not be won without careful planning by able generals in command of trained soldiers.

390. Call for Volunteers; General George B. McClellan.

— President Lincoln at once called for half a million volunteers, for it was now clear that there was to be a great war.



GEORGE B. MCCLELLAN

In the early days of the war, General Scott, who had won fame in the Mexican War, was in command of the Union armies. But in November, 1861, a younger man, fresh from his studies of war in Europe, General George B. McClellan, was placed in charge.

It had been the first care of the President to see that the slave states that had not seceded were kept in the Union. In each of these states, however, were many who favored secession and joined the Confederate Army, while Missouri, for instance, sent men to both armies by thousands. Union control of the border slave states, especially in Kentucky and Missouri, was not gained without much fighting. By the end of 1861, the Confederacy was beset by land and sea and was struggling to defend itself.

391. West Virginia. — The people in Virginia were generally in favor of the Union, but the politicians dragged them

into the Confederacy. In the mountainous western part of the state slavery was not profitable, the climate and soil not being good for such crops as required slave labor. There the people did not join the Confederacy, and after Virginia seceded from the Union, West Virginia was made a separate state in 1863.

392. Mason and Slidell. — The South could not send cotton to be sold out of the country, and thus was crippled for want of money. As the colonies had gained the help of France against England in the Revolution, so the Confederate states, in their struggle for independence, sought the help not only of France but of England also. They sent two of their ablest men to Europe to get help from these nations.



ROBERT E. LEE

Before these messengers, Mason and Slidell, reached Europe, the English vessel on which they sailed was stopped by an American war-ship and they were taken off and held as prisoners. In thus removing men from the vessel of a foreign nation the United States did what England had done before the War of 1812. England was as angry now as America had been years before, and steps were taken toward making war on the United States. Mason and Slidell were set free, however, with the understanding that, thereafter, neither nation was to search the vessels of the other.

393. Forts Donelson and Henry. — In the northwestern part of Tennessee there are two rivers, the Tennessee and the Cumberland, which were important routes for steamboat

traffic. The Confederates controlled these rivers by means of Fort Henry on the Tennessee River and Fort Donelson on the Cumberland. The Union armies under General U. S. Grant, after some severe fighting, captured these forts early



TAKING THE RAMPARTS AT FORT DONELSON

in 1862. Much help was given by the Union gunboats in the rivers, commanded by Commodore Foote. Many prisoners and great stores of war supplies, which the Confederates much needed, fell into the hands of our army. The Confederates soon surrendered Columbus on the Mississippi, not far away. The command of the Mississippi and its branches was as important, in this war, as that of the Hudson had been in the war of the Revolution; but the great river was not yet under Federal control, for, farther south was another strong fort,

known as Island Number Ten. Grant's victories caused the Confederates to abandon thousands of square miles of territory which they had hoped to hold. The outside pressure of the Union Armies was forcing the Confederacy back within itself.

394. Control of the Mississippi. — It was the purpose of President Lincoln to keep the South from getting materials from outside. The Confederacy was blockaded along the coast, but arms and other war supplies could be brought in by way of Mexico and from the country on the west, across the Mississippi River. To shut off these supplies it was needful that the Mississippi should be held by Union soldiers and Union gunboats. As soon as control of the Mississippi River should be gained, the Confederacy would be cut in two, and it would be difficult for the Confederates to move men and supplies, for there were but few railroads in that region. Whichever side held the western rivers, had a great advantage over the other.

395. Battle of Shiloh or Pittsburg Landing; Corinth. — Next in importance to the rivers were the railroads, and to get control of these was the purpose of General Grant, who began to move toward Corinth, in the northeast part of the state of Mississippi, where several railroads centered.

The Confederates had good generals who knew what Grant wanted, and meant to block his movement. When he started up the Tennessee River toward Corinth, General A. S. Johnston, one of the ablest generals of the Confederacy, advanced toward Grant's army. As Grant halted to rest his men and to wait for General Buell to join him with his army, Johnston, with a greater force, fell upon him with furious attack. Every Confederate soldier knew as well as his great leader how much depended on victory. Grant's army was driven

back, but Johnston, in the moment of apparent victory, was killed. Then Beauregard, who had whipped the Union Army at Bull Run in the East, took command. "We will finish our victory in the morning," said Beauregard. "Our hardest fighting comes to-morrow," said Grant. That night Buell came up to help Grant, and in the morning, April 7, 1862, the fight went on again. By nightfall the Union Army was victorious in the hardest fought battle of the war in the West.

The day after the defeat at Pittsburg Landing, the Confederates gave up Island Number Ten. Then the Mississippi River was controlled by the Federal forces as far south as Vicksburg. The victory at Pittsburg Landing made the fall of Corinth sure, and in May it surrendered.

396. The Duel of the Ironclads. — In the early days of the war General Scott caused forts to be built around Washington, and Fortress Monroe, in Virginia, was well manned with Federal troops. When Virginia seceded, the state government seized the Navy Yard at Portsmouth and the Arsenal at Harper's Ferry, but not until both had been destroyed as far as could be done, by the Federal officers in charge.

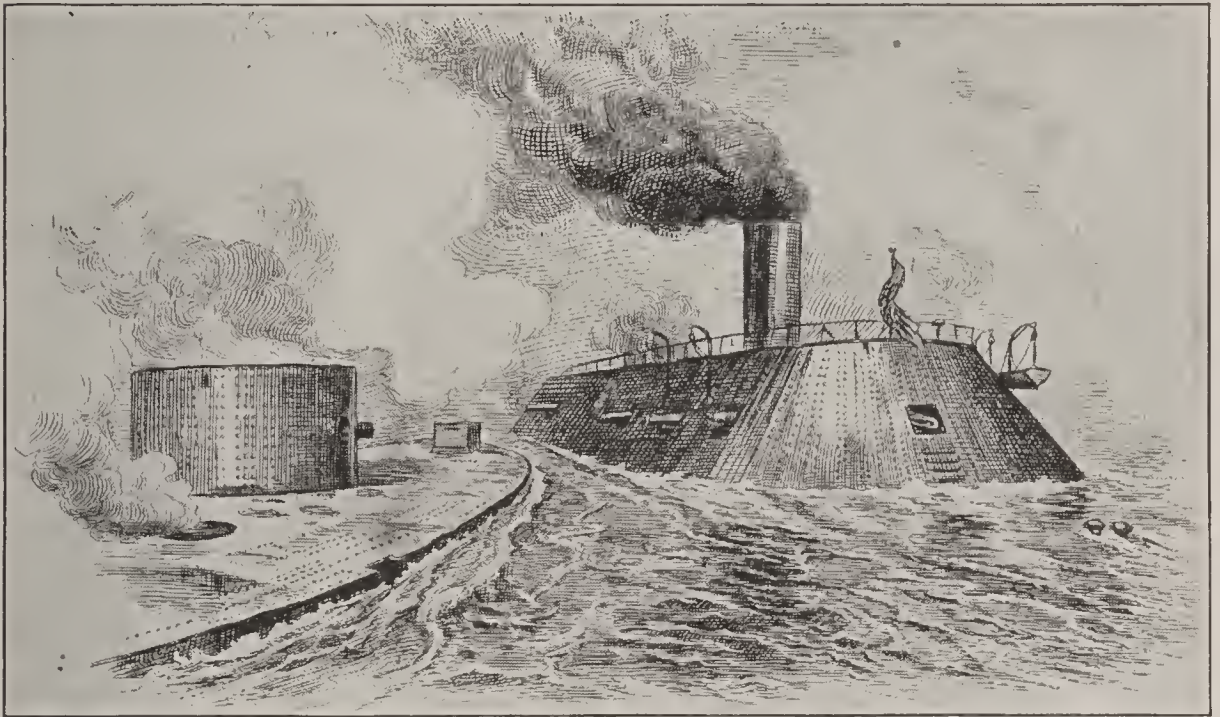
At the Navy Yard several war-vessels were sunk to prevent their capture, among them the steam frigate *Merrimac*, which the Confederates afterward raised and made into a war-vessel of a new kind.

They built on the *Merrimac* sides of heavy iron, which sloped upward from the water. No cannon ball could strike them squarely; every shot that might hit would glance off and be harmless. When the craft was done they named her the *Virginia* and thought that with her they would be able to break through the blockade of Union war-vessels.

While the South was building the *Virginia* the North

was also building an iron-sheathed vessel to meet the former when she should be completed. There was to be a greater duel between two war-vessels than the world had yet seen.

397. The "Monitor." — The *Monitor*, built by Captain John Ericsson, was a vessel lying so low that her deck was but



THE "MONITOR" AND THE "VIRGINIA"

two or three feet above water level. Her sides were of timber several feet thick, covered on the outside with heavy iron plates which no cannon ball could pierce. Her deck, plated with iron, was so flat and low that no shot could harm it. Built upon the deck was an enclosure shaped like a cheese-box, made of thick iron, and within this turret, as it was called, were two heavy guns. The turret could be made to turn, by machinery, so that the guns might be pointed in any direction. The revolving turret was the idea of a skilful inventor, Theodore R. Timby, who died in Brooklyn in 1911.

On March 8, 1862, the *Virginia* came down from Norfolk and fought the wooden ships at Hampton Roads. She struck

the noble *Cumberland* with her iron prow, and cut the vessel half-way through. She set the *Congress* on fire and destroyed her.

The *Virginia* started the next day to resume her work, but during the night the *Monitor* had arrived, and the two vessels opened fire upon each other. It was iron against iron now, and the *Virginia* after a fearful fight returned to Norfolk, never to fight again. The *Monitor* saved the rest of the Union war-vessels; saved the Northern cities; saved the blockade; saved the Union. A little later, when the Union armies marched for Richmond, Norfolk was taken; but before it fell, the Confederates destroyed the *Virginia*. The *Monitor* was later lost at sea while cruising off the coast of North Carolina.

The fight at Hampton Roads taught the world that wooden war-ships were useless and for this reason the encounter of the two iron-clads stands as one of the most important sea-battles in history.

398. New Orleans. — The South in 1862, the second year of the war, still held the lower part of the Mississippi River. Grant, with the armies and the gunboats, was gaining the river from the northward; another force must enter at its mouth and work up-stream. In the spring a fleet under Commodore Farragut, bearing an army, sailed against New Orleans.

The Confederates made skilful plans for the defense of the river and city. After four days of fighting, however, the Federals prevailed, and the city of New Orleans was taken. The loss of the outlet of the Mississippi Valley hurt the cause of the Confederacy, not only in America but in Europe. France and England would now think twice before siding with the South.

The South had then but two strongholds on the river,

Port Hudson and Vicksburg. Farragut moved up the stream with his vessels to attack them, but it was necessary for him to wait for the army. These strongholds could be taken only by the navy and the army fighting together.

399. The Draft in the South. — By the spring of 1862 no more volunteers for the Confederate armies were to be had. Then the Confederate Congress passed a law which drew into the army all men between eighteen and thirty-five years of age. By the fall of the same year, all men under forty-five years of age were made to join the army.

400. The Blockade Goes On.—The North was pressing the blockade, but there were not enough ships to watch properly all the ports of the Confederacy. Besides, it was dangerous for vessels to lie outside, on the ocean, exposed to the terrible storms of the Atlantic, with no near harbors to run into in case of need. It was therefore thought best to capture some of the seaports, which might be used by Union vessels as harbors of refuge. The ships blockading them might then be sent to watch other ports. So, one after another, the seaports were taken.



A PAIR OF WOODEN-SOLED SHOES

Worn by a Confederate soldier in latter part of the war

401. Privations of the South. — By this time every southern seaport except Savannah, Charleston, and Wilmington had been taken. The South could have no trade with Europe but such as might be made by means of steamers stealing by the watchful Union war-ships that lay in wait for them off

these three ports. The blockade bore heavily upon the southern people. Tea, coffee, and salt were very hard to get. There were but few medicines to be had, either for the armies or for the people. The southern soldiers had to find clothing for themselves as best they could; and thousands of them wore captured Union uniforms.

The southern people gave their carpets to be made into blankets for the soldiers. Coarse homespun cloth, woven on hand-loom as in colonial times, became common; and so did wooden-soled shoes like those worn in Europe by the peasants. Meat became very scarce and costly, especially after the Union armies and gunboats had taken the Mississippi River, so that cattle from Texas could not be had. There were bread riots in some of the southern cities, which were put down by military force. In Richmond, President Davis himself, by threats of having the troops fire on it, scattered a mob which was demanding bread. The courage of the southern people, and especially that of the southern women, during this terrible period was marvelous.

402. The North. — The North, a land of plenty, felt no pinch of poverty or famine. Volunteers had been called for, again and again, and every year brought a new host of youth to the proper age for service, and these took their places willingly, to fight for the Union. Immigrants kept coming from Europe, and many of them entered the Union armies to fight for their adopted country. The North had many more men in the field than the South.

403. Richmond; McClellan. — General McClellan, with a hundred thousand men, went to Fortress Monroe and from there set out for Richmond. The Confederate generals were more active than McClellan. The last day of May and the first day of June, 1862, saw a vigorous attack on his

force which had marched toward Richmond. This attack ended much to the advantage of the Confederates.

McClellan, cut off from his supplies, had to fight to get away. For seven days the Confederates kept after him, in a series of terrific fights known as the Seven Days' Battle, but they were checked at last at Malvern Hill, July 1, and



RICHMOND IN 1862

McClellan's army reached the James River, where the gunboats could help keep back the foe. From there the army was moved to Washington; and thus the second attempt to take Richmond had ended in failure. McClellan had shown that, while weak in attack, he was a genius at defense, for his retreat was masterful. But what the nation wanted was a general who could make the enemy retreat. So Halleck, who had been in command over Grant in the West, was called to Washington to be general-in-chief. General Pope, who had a good record, was put in command of the army that was to make the third attempt to take Richmond.

404. Second Battle of Bull Run. — Pope was as much too rash as McClellan had been too cautious. Long before he could get to Richmond, the Confederate General “Stonewall” Jackson slipped in behind him and got his supplies of ammunition and food. The two armies came together very near the old Bull Run battle-ground, and for the third time the Union Army was defeated, and it fell back to Washington.

405. The Confederate Army Advances. — The Confederate commander, General Robert E. Lee, thought it time for his army to advance. “Maryland is a slave state. There must be many friends of the South there. Perhaps they are ready to join a Confederate Army, if it comes to them victorious. If we rush through Maryland with an army growing stronger every day, and can win a northern city or two, we may end the war.” So said the wise men of the Confederacy, as Lee set forth with sixty thousand men.

406. Antietam; Fredericksburg. — McClellan’s army was thrown across Lee’s front to check him, and there was a battle at Antietam, Maryland, September 17, 1862. Lee’s army fell back after a terrible fight. McClellan failed to follow, and the next day the Confederate forces crossed the Potomac and marched back into Virginia. The President now set McClellan aside and gave the command to General Burnside.

Then began the fourth march on Richmond, and at Fredericksburg, December 13, the Union Army was beaten again, as it seemed fated to be whenever it started toward Richmond.

407. Third Year of the War. — General Hooker was placed in command in January, 1863, and Burnside went back to his corps. General Hooker determined to attempt to take Richmond by marching up the Rappahannock River. He had a much larger army than Lee, and the two forces met at Chancellorsville, a short distance west of the fateful field

of Fredericksburg, on the south bank of the Rappahannock. The Federal forces met with another crushing defeat through a masterly attack on their flank by "Stonewall" Jackson.

Thomas J. ("Stonewall") Jackson, a native of Virginia, was one of the ablest commanders of the Confederate forces, being "the most striking figure of the war on the Southern side."



THE CONFEDERACY AT THE CLOSE OF 1862

As an able general and a military genius he ranks with Generals Robert E. Lee and Joseph E. Johnston, whom Virginia also gave to the Confederate army. His steadiness and bravery in the first battle of Bull Run, when a part of the Confederate forces were retreating, earned for him the name of "Stonewall," for his brigade, instead of retreating, calmly awaited the attack, standing in line as firm as a stone wall. Lee considered that Jackson was his most able general, and the latter distinguished himself at the second battle of Bull Run, at Antietam, and at Fredericksburg. After the battle of Chancellorsville (May, 1863) while returning from a recon-

noitering expedition with a few of his escort, General Jackson was shot by his own men, who mistook him and his aids for a small Federal force.

408. Slavery and the Emancipation Proclamation. — President Lincoln said that his great object was to restore the



“STONEWALL” JACKSON

Union, and neither to save nor destroy slavery. He declared that he would save the Union without freeing any slaves if he could; that if by freeing all the slaves he could save the Union, he would, or, that if by freeing some, and leaving others in bondage, he could save the Union, he would do that.

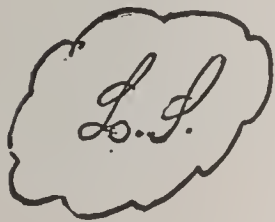
What to do with slavery was a grave question. The President finally proclaimed that, if the people in the seceded states did not lay down their arms by the first day of 1863, he would declare that all their slaves should be forever free.

On the first day of January, 1863, President Lincoln declared that, in all parts of the country where there was war against the Union, slavery should exist no more.

409. Results of Emancipation. — The slaves became restless. As fast as they could, they ran away into the Union lines. Those that were left did not work as well as they had done before. Confederate soldiers now did much of the work about the camps, on the march, and at the breastworks, that before this time had been done by slaves. There were fewer Confederates now on the firing line. In another way emancipation helped the Union cause, for many negroes, North and South, became soldiers in the Union Army.

And by virtue of the power, and for the purpose aforesaid, I do order and declare that all persons held as slaves within said designated States, and parts of States, are, and henceforward shall be free;

And upon this act, sincerely believed to be an act of justice, warranted by the Constitution upon military necessity, I invoke the consideration and prayer of mankind, and the gracious favor of Almighty God.



Independence of the United States
of America the eighty-seventh.

Abraham Lincoln

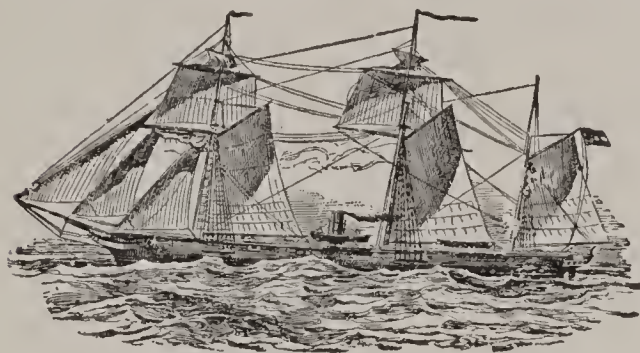
EXTRACT FROM LINCOLN'S EMANCIPATION PROCLAMATION

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410. Confederate War-Ships on the Sea. — It was beyond the power of the South to build ocean war-ships. The Confederacy depended on England and France for them. In England two very powerful war-vessels, the *Florida* and the *Alabama*, were built for the Confederacy. These were to be used to destroy American merchant ships on the sea.

411. England and France. — It was against the laws of nations, as it was against the spirit of fair play, for England

to allow these vessels to be built and to sail from her ports to prey upon American ships. The *Alabama* and the *Florida* did great damage to our commerce, by destroying our merchant ships. Both avoided our armed vessels, but finally the *Alabama* was sunk by our *Kearsarge* and the *Florida* was



THE CRUISER "ALABAMA"

captured. Some strong naval vessels were built for the Confederacy in France; but they never got out of port to do any damage to the ships of the United States.

412. Exchange of Prisoners. — Up to this time it had been the custom to exchange prisoners taken in battle. There were great prison camps, North and South, in which thousands of captive soldiers were kept under guard. Union prisoners, held in southern prisons and prison pens, suffered from overcrowding and lack of proper food and water. Those that did not die from exposure and other causes soon became mere wrecks of men. They were thus unable to serve as soldiers should they be exchanged. To give to the Confederacy a well-fed, strong soldier, able to take the field and fight at once, in exchange for a famished, sick, half-dead Union soldier, fit only for the hospital, was only to strengthen the enemy, and for many months there were no exchanges of prisoners.

413. The Draft Riots. — A draft is the drawing of men into the army by lot, whether they want to be soldiers or not. A list of all able-bodied men between the ages of eighteen and forty-five years was made, and from those so enrolled, men were drawn or drafted. The ignorant and vicious of the people of New York City began rioting against the draft.

The mob was guilty of much murderous brutality, but was at length put down by the militia, after more than a thousand people had been killed.

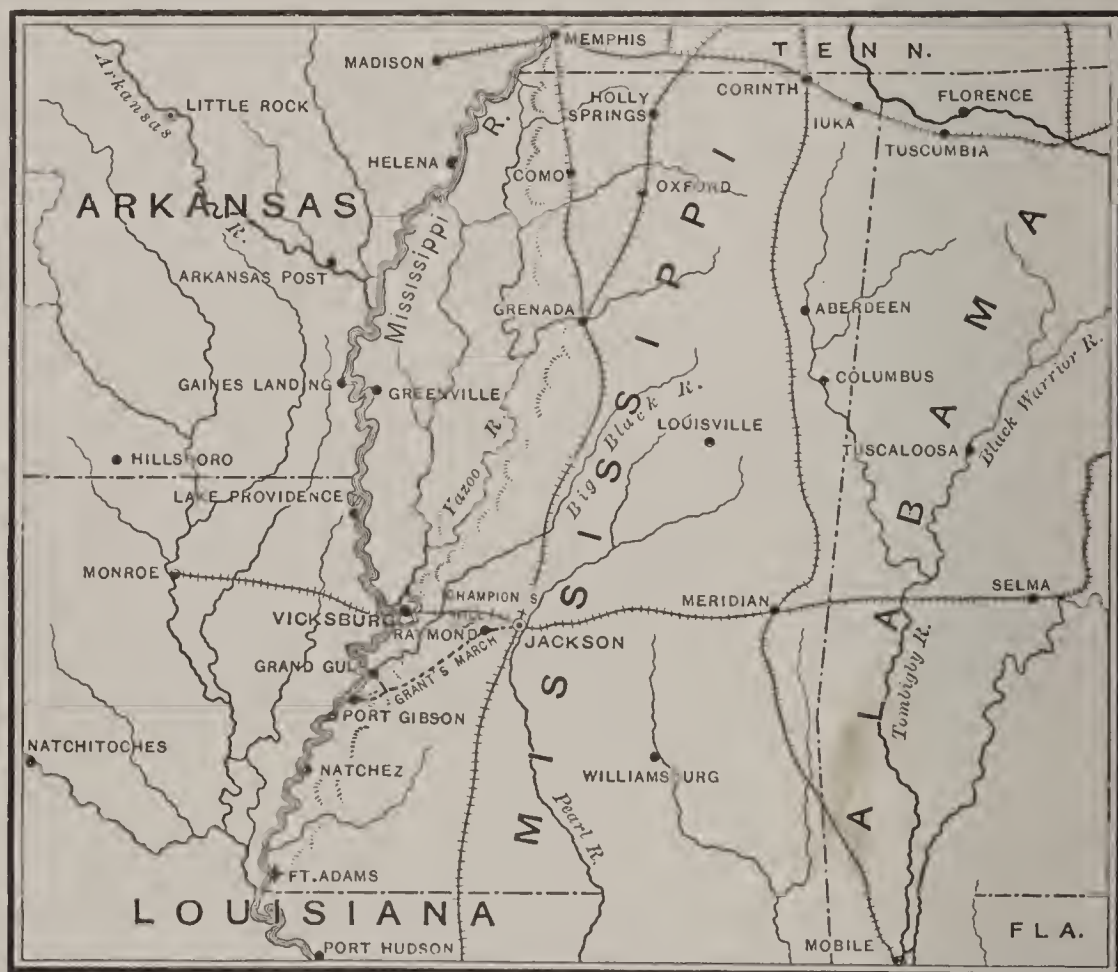
414. Gettysburg. — Lee swung his army into Pennsylvania in the summer of 1863, and the hopes of the South ran high. As soon as the Union commanders saw what Lee's



THE BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG

plan was, they moved the Union forces to break it up. The two armies came together at Gettysburg, the Union forces under General Meade. The battle began on the first day of July, 1863, and lasted for three days. On the third day the Confederates made one of the most desperate charges known in the history of the war. On that charge hung the fate of the Confederacy, and those devoted heroes in gray knew it. It failed. A monument to honor those heroes now stands at the foremost point reached by that charging host. Many monuments in honor of Northern regiments have also been erected at Gettysburg. Lee was defeated; and his shattered army made its way in sorrow back to Virginia.

415. Vicksburg.—For two weeks Grant had laid close siege to Vicksburg, which commanded the Mississippi. On July 4, 1863, while Lee was retreating from Gettysburg, Pemberton, the Confederate commander at Vicksburg, was surrendering to Grant. More prisoners and war supplies were



MAP OF THE VICKSBURG CAMPAIGN

taken by Grant at Vicksburg than were ever before surrendered at one time in any war. Lee had lost thirty thousand men, and Pemberton more than that. Four days later, Port Hudson on the Mississippi surrendered to the Union Army, and the whole river, from its source to its mouth, was now in the control of the Federal forces.

416. Chattanooga and Chickamauga.—Next to Richmond in importance to the South, was the city of Chattanooga. It

was a railway center and the gateway to eastern Tennessee. General Rosecrans, commanding the Union Army, took Chattanooga in September, forcing the Confederate General Bragg and his army back to Chickamauga, Georgia. There Bragg was joined by another army and, turning on Rosecrans who was pursuing him, defeated the Federal forces and drove them back to Chattanooga.

The battle of Chickamauga (September 19-20, 1863) was one of the severest of the war. That the Federal forces were not entirely captured or destroyed was due to the courage and tenacity of General George H. Thomas, who was in command of the left wing of the Federal army. On the second day of the fight, a portion of the Federal right wing was withdrawn through misinterpreting an order issued by General Rosecrans. This so weakened the Federal forces that the Confederates routed a large part of them, who retreated toward Chattanooga. The left wing of the Federals, under the command of General Thomas, was alone left upon the field at Missionary Ridge, and bore the attack of the entire Confederate army. Throughout the day General Thomas heroically held his ground, beating back the Confederate forces again and again, thus saving the whole Federal army and insuring Federal control of Chattanooga.

During the night, General Thomas withdrew his forces and succeeded in reaching Chattanooga the next day. The Confederates, however, won this battle and the victory



GEORGE H. THOMAS

cheered them in their season of defeat. For his gallant steadfast bravery in this engagement in which he held his men steady as a rock, General Thomas has been justly called the "Rock of Chickamauga."

417. Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge. — Bragg besieged Rosecrans in Chattanooga, as Grant had besieged Pemberton in Vicksburg. It seemed that starvation would compel the surrender of the Union Army, as all its supplies were cut off. Thousands of horses and mules died for want of food, and there was not enough powder and ball for a day's battle.

Up to this time, one general in the Union Army had never failed. Whatever task had been set for General Grant had been carried through. He was now placed in command of all the armies of the West. Hurrying to Chattanooga, he very quickly found a way to get supplies to the starving army. Late in November, 1863, Bragg's forces were defeated in the battles of Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge, and were driven into Georgia.

418. English and French War-Vessels for the South. — In England more war-vessels were being built for the Confederacy. Our minister in England told the English government that the sailing of those ships meant war for England. Other war-vessels were being built in France, but when the emperor saw that their leaving port meant war, he held them back. Germany and Russia were friendly to the United States during the war.

419. Grant in Command. — It was now 1864; a President was to be elected. During this year the main issue was whether the war should go on, or whether the South should be allowed to go out of the Union. The fate of the nation was at stake. The election was more important than any battle

of the war. To save the Union, Lincoln must be elected again. To elect Lincoln, more victories must be won, that the hearts of those who were despondent might be strengthened. Early in the year General Grant was put in command of all the Union armies; and the hopes of the North were



THE CONFEDERACY AT CLOSE OF 1863

centered in the general who never yet had failed. It was now Grant against Lee.

420. Grant's Plans. — The Confederacy had been battered back from the outside until its fighting area was confined to Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia. Richmond and Atlanta were now the most important points in the South. Early in May, Grant set out to fight Lee, and to capture Richmond. He ordered Sherman to go after Johnston's army, and to take Atlanta.

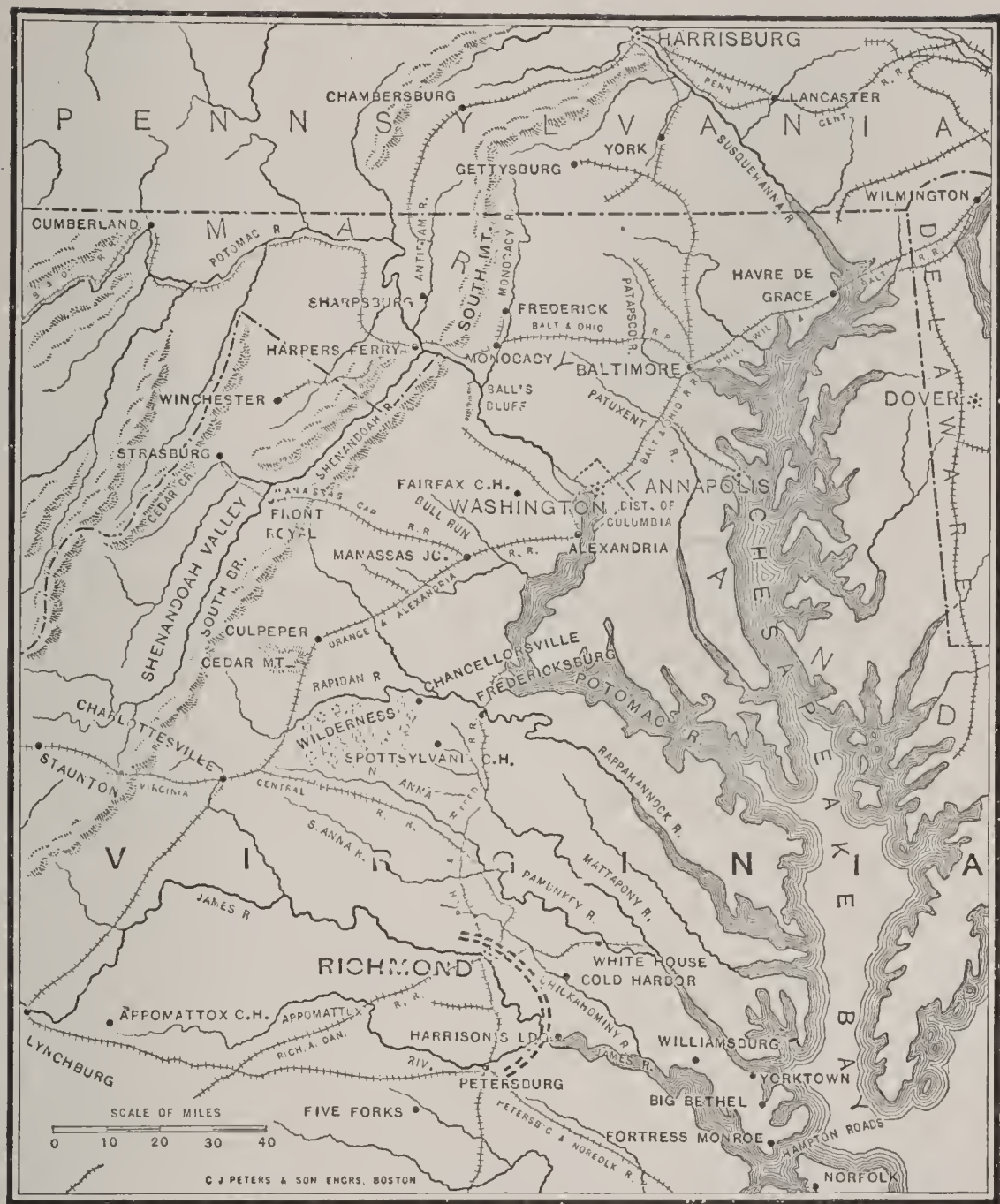
421. The Wilderness; a Fighting General. — Both Grant and Sherman were successful in finding the enemy. May 6 and 7, 1864, saw Grant's force in a death grapple with

Lee's army in the "Wilderness," Grant with nearly twice the force of Lee. There was severe fighting, and Grant did not win. "The Yankees are whipped again," said the Confederates. "They will now fall back to Washington, as they always do." But, to their surprise, the new general did not seem to know when he was whipped. He did not fall back, as McDowell, McClellan, Burnside, Hooker, and Pope had done, when they were whipped. He swung around to the left and came on again.

422. Spottsylvania. — This time the fighting was at Spottsylvania Court House. Lee was waiting for him, and again Grant did not win, though, as before, the fighting was fearful and the harvest of death was great. Baffled twice, Grant still kept on fighting. He seemed to know that war is fighting; and he kept on fighting. He sent this despatch to President Lincoln, "I propose to fight it out on this line if it takes all summer."

423. Cold Harbor. — Again Grant swung to the left, and at Cold Harbor he again found Lee in his way. What was left of the two armies again grappled, and again, after fearful slaughter, Grant failed to win.

424. Petersburg. — Once more Grant swung to the left, this time crossing the James River. He entrenched before Petersburg, which was the key to Richmond, and here again Lee faced him. In the six weeks of fighting, since Grant started, he had lost fifty thousand men. Lee, having the advantage of fighting behind earth-works, had lost less, but had lost more than he could afford. The two armies were grinding each other down; and now, as they stood face to face at Petersburg, it was a trial of strength, to see which could hold out longer. Grant's army could be kept up by recruits to take the places of the slain; Lee's could not, for



CAMPAIGNS IN VIRGINIA

the Confederacy could draft no more men. The South was tired out, starved out, and could not last much longer.

425. The Shenandoah Valley. — Lee's wonderful skill could not make up for the lack of men. He missed "Stone-wall" Jackson. For want of him he sent a less able general to try the old trick of threatening Washington by a movement through the Shenandoah Valley. General Early went there

with a force, hoping to draw troops away from Grant. He did draw troops from Grant, and they, under General Sheridan, drove him back, but still Grant kept his pressure on Lee. He was holding Lee's force in check while Sherman was fighting Johnston in the West. Thus the winter of 1864 went by. Grant's army was in front of Petersburg, threatening Richmond; Lee's smaller force was in and about Petersburg, defending Richmond. The South, stricken by poverty and want, was robbing its homes to feed and clothe Lee's soldiers, while the North, the home of plenty, was supplying Grant's men without feeling it.

426. Desperate Measures. — The Confederate leaders, baffled at every point, grew desperate. They were ready to try any scheme, however wild, that gave even a faint hope of success. They sent disguised men to Canada to arrange for raids into the northern states, where secret organizations were to help them. They thought thus to set free many thousands of Confederate prisoners. They sent men to take passage on steamboats on the Great Lakes, and kill the unarmed crews and seize the vessels. They sent men to burn northern cities. An attempt was made, late in the year, to burn New York. The plan was to set fire to about a dozen hotels and theaters, all at once. Had the plan succeeded, hundreds, if not thousands, of women and children would have lost their lives. Fortunately the fires started were all put out.

427. Taxes in the Confederacy. — In the South, the notes of the Confederacy, the states, and the cities — for they all had put out notes — were worthless. The tax-gatherers no longer took such notes in payment of taxes. They went around among the people, seizing one-tenth of all the crops raised. The governor of Virginia, in his message, asked that some-

thing be done to prevent starvation in the state. Many of the soldiers had not been paid in two years. There was danger of war in many parts of the South because of the oppression of the people.

428. The Nation's Credit. — The notes of the government went down in value until it took nearly three dollars of greenbacks to buy as much as could be bought for a dollar in gold. Many said that it was unwise to buy government bonds and that purchasers of these bonds were throwing away their money as the bonds would soon be worthless.

429. Atlanta Falls. — While Grant was fighting Lee and holding him at bay, Sherman was busy in the West. Atlanta, center of railroads and city of factories, was helpful to the Confederacy, and it must be taken. Sherman set out to take the city. Johnston with his army stood in the way. He was a great general, but his army was weak, too weak to face Sherman's force in a set battle. He fell slowly back, forced by Sherman from point to point; and Sherman drew nearer and nearer to the city he sought.

Then Davis, President of the Confederacy, displaced Johnston with General Hood, who loved fighting. As Johnston had foreseen, Hood was defeated in every battle, and Sherman took Atlanta early in September, 1864, after its defenders had set the city on fire. While Sherman was taking Atlanta, Farragut, with his fleet and a force of soldiers, took Mobile. Thus, while Grant kept Lee from helping Johnston, Sherman was tearing down the Confederacy and destroying its railroads.

430. The March to the Sea. — After losing Atlanta, Hood made what both President Davis and he believed to be a master move. He put his army behind that of Sherman so as to cut off Sherman's supplies from the North.

But Hood had done just what Sherman and Grant had hoped he would do. The army of General Thomas attended to Hood and his force, while Sherman cut loose from his line of supplies and, with his sixty thousand men, started on a long march across the enemy's country, "from Atlanta to the sea." His men helped themselves to food as they went, and proved even harder tax-gatherers than those of the Confederacy had been. The Confederacy had been pressed back into a small compass; it was now to be torn up at its very heart. Factories and railroads were destroyed throughout a strip sixty miles wide across the state of Georgia. Reaching the sea-coast, Sherman took the city of Savannah about Christmas, 1864.

431. The Elections. — It was now the fall of 1864; the election of a President was to be held in November. The Peace Democrats of the North had nominated General McClellan, and the Republicans and War Democrats were going to vote for Lincoln.

To the long list of Union victories that had come to cheer the North, more were added by Sheridan, who had been sent to sweep the Shenandoah Valley. On the nineteenth of September, 1864, there was a victory at Winchester; on the twenty-second, one at Fisher's Hill; and on October 19, another at Cedar Creek. The Confederate Army was driven from the valley, never to return.

In the election the nation won the greatest victory of the war, for Lincoln was again made President. Andrew Johnson, a War Democrat, was elected Vice-President. Enough Republican Senators and Congressmen were elected to propose an amendment to the Constitution that killed slavery, thus making good the President's Proclamation of Emancipation.

432. The South Fights through Pride. — The Confederacy lost the war when its great charge at Gettysburg failed. From that day the war went on because the leaders were too proud to yield. The saying was common in the camps of the South, "This is a rich man's war and a poor man's fight."

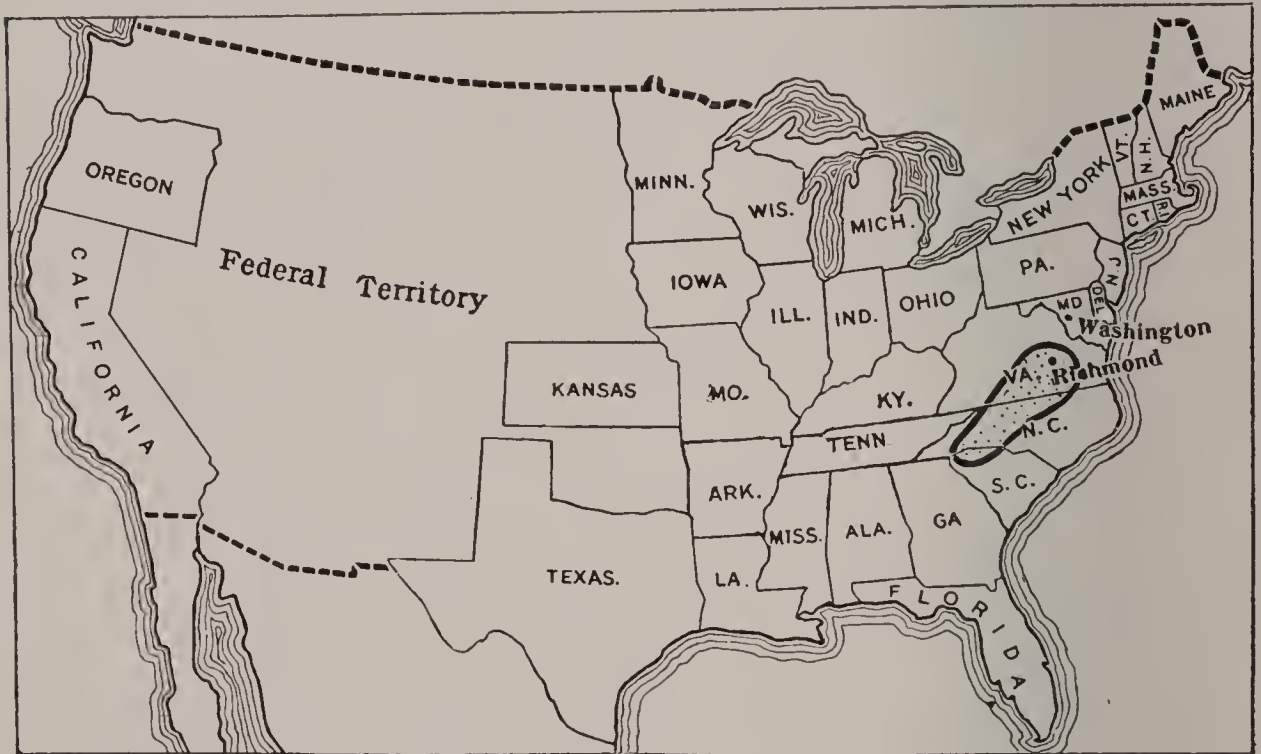


THE CONFEDERACY AT THE CLOSE OF 1864

It was now late in 1864; only two ports were left to the Confederacy, and it had but two armies. Lee was still shut up by Grant, while Johnston was beset by Sherman, against whom he could not hold his ground. The nation had more than a million men in the field; and it was only a matter of weeks when the Confederacy must end from sheer weakness.

433. Sherman Marches North. — Scarcely had the new year, 1865, begun when Wilmington was taken. Charleston now remained, and though it had resisted more than one attack by sea, it could not withstand the attack that Sherman was prepared to make by land. On the first of February, 1865, Sherman set forth from Savannah to march through the

Carolinas, as he had marched through Georgia. On the seventeenth, he took Columbia, the capital of South Carolina. Now Charleston could be starved out; but without waiting for that, the city surrendered, and Fort Sumter was given up to the nation, from which it had been withheld four years.



THE CONFEDERACY, IN THE SPRING OF 1865

It was now proposed in the South that negroes should be made to serve as soldiers; but though the proposal met with favor from General Lee, it was not put in force.

Sherman went on from Columbia, and by the middle of March had reached Raleigh and Goldsboro, N. C. Here he was joined by troops from the coast and, with his hundred thousand men, he rested and waited for what might happen. He was expecting a movement by Lee's army.

434. Grant and Lee at Petersburg. — Grant was watching Lee, ready to spring upon his army at the first sign of a movement. Sheridan, having swept the Shenandoah Valley, was now with Grant. On the first day of April, 1865, by Grant's

order, he seized the last railroad by which Lee's army could receive supplies. Lee must now attack Grant and be defeated with dreadful slaughter; or retreat from Richmond, which would give his men a chance to desert by thousands; or stay where he was, and let his men starve.

435. Lee Abandons Richmond. — On April 2, Grant pressed Lee all along the line, breaking through and forcing him back toward Richmond. By the morning of the third, Richmond had been abandoned, and Lee's army was in full retreat toward Lynchburg. The Union Army followed swiftly, to overtake it and bring it to battle, for it was known that Lee hoped to join Johnston and prolong the war.

On the sixth of April, the rear of Lee's army was overtaken and several thousand prisoners with several miles of wagon train were captured. On the ninth of April, the Union troops, under Sheridan blocked the way, and held what was left of the Confederate force until the rest of the Union Army came up. Most of Lee's men had left his columns and started for their homes, feeling that all was lost.

436. Lee's Surrender. — To fight was hopeless, and Lee surrendered the weak remnant of his army to General Grant, April 9, 1865, at Appomattox Court House, Va.

The soldiers in blue and those in gray, who an hour before had sought to kill one another, now mingled in fellowship. The haversacks of the well-fed boys in blue were opened freely for the famished boys in gray. A gallant victor is always generous to a defeated but gallant foe. "Keep your horses," said Grant to the Confederate soldiers, "you will need them for your spring plowing."

Sherman's army was still resting in North Carolina and waiting for news, when the soldiers noticed that the people seemed strangely sad. "Have you not heard the news?"

said a gentleman to General Howard. "No; what is it?" asked Howard. "Our Army of Virginia, Lee's army, has surrendered to your General Grant." Thus the news that Sherman waited for came to him. In a few days Johnston surrendered his army to General Sherman, and the war between the states was over.



SURRENDER OF LEE AT APPOMATTOX COURT HOUSE

437. What the War had Cost. — Of those who entered the Union armies, three hundred and sixty thousand lost their lives. Two-thirds as many died in the Confederate armies. The nation, from Maine to Texas, was full of men maimed and crippled from wounds or disease, for several times as many were wounded as were killed. Almost every home in the land was a house of mourning. The South had spent all it had and all it could borrow. Its money, its credit, and its property were all gone. The hand of war had de-

stroyed its homes, for they had been ravaged by the march and the battles of contending armies. The loss of property, including the slaves, was more than eight thousand millions of dollars. Each year of the war had cost the nation a sum greater than had been spent by it in all the years from the time of Washington to that of Lincoln.

438. What the War Did. — *The war settled the slavery question forever*, for it brought about the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution, forbidding human bondage. *It opened up the South to the influence of the white man's industry.* Under free labor, the southern part of our country has made wonderful advance in prosperity, and has gained vastly more than it lost. *It made the United States truly a nation* and finished the work of the men who made the Constitution; for since the war it has been known by all men, that *no state can leave the Union.*

SUMMARY

1. The Civil War begins with the bombarding of Fort Sumter.
2. President Lincoln calls for volunteers.
3. The Southern ports are blockaded.
4. The Union forces defeated at Bull Run.
5. General McClellan is given command of the Union armies.
6. Capture of Mason and Slidell.
7. Forts Donelson and Henry are taken.
8. Battle of Shiloh and capture of Corinth.
9. The fight between the *Monitor* and *Virginia*.
10. Capture of New Orleans.
11. Suffering in the South.
12. McClellan attempts to capture Richmond.
13. Second Battle of Bull Run. Defeat of the Union forces.
14. Confederate invasion of Maryland. Battle of Antietam.
15. Union forces defeated at Fredericksburg and at Chancellorsville.
16. Emancipation Proclamation.
17. The *Alabama*.
18. Draft Riots in New York City.

19. The Battle of Gettysburg.
20. The capture of Vicksburg. Control of the Mississippi River.
21. Capture of Chattanooga.
22. Battles of Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge. Retreat of the Confederates.
23. General Grant placed in full command.
24. Grant against Lee in Virginia, and Sherman against Johnston in the South.
25. Sherman takes Atlanta and "marches to the sea."
26. Lincoln is re-elected President.
27. Lee abandons Richmond and surrenders to Grant at Appomattox Court House, Va.
28. General Johnston surrenders his army to Sherman at Raleigh, N. C.
29. The end of the war. Results of the war.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. What caused the War between the States?
2. Where was the first fighting of the war?
3. What was the effect in the North of the bombardment and capture of Fort Sumter?
4. How was the blockade very harmful to the South?
5. When and where did the first Battle of Bull Run occur? Who were the opposing generals? Which side was victorious?
6. Who was first Commander-in-Chief of the Union forces? Who after him?
7. Who were Mason and Slidell? Where and on what errand were they sent?
8. Where were Forts Donelson and Henry? Why was their location important? By whom were they captured?
9. How came the Battle of Shiloh to be fought? Results of Union victory at Shiloh? Where was Corinth? Why was its capture important?
10. What famous sea-fight took place in Hampton Roads? With what results?
11. What important Southern port was taken in 1862?
12. Give an account of General McClellan's movements against Richmond, June, 1862. Were they successful?
13. Who had command of the Union forces at the second Battle of Bull Run? What was the result of this fight?
14. What movement to the north was made by General Lee? What battle did he fight? With what result?

15. Where was General Burnside defeated? Who succeeded General Burnside?
16. What was the Emancipation Proclamation? When was it issued?
17. For what purpose was the cruiser *Alabama* built? What became of her?
18. Give an account of the Draft Riots?
19. What was the decisive battle of the war? Give an account of it.
20. What important Union victory was won in the South at about the same time?
21. Where was Chattanooga? Chickamauga? Lookout Mountain? Missionary Ridge?
22. Who was placed in command of the Union armies in 1864?
23. What was Grant's plan of campaign?
24. What was Sherman ordered to do? What cities did he take?
25. Give an account of Grant's movements.
26. When did Lee abandon Richmond? When did he surrender? Where?
27. To whom did Johnston surrender? Where?
28. What questions did the War between the States settle forever?

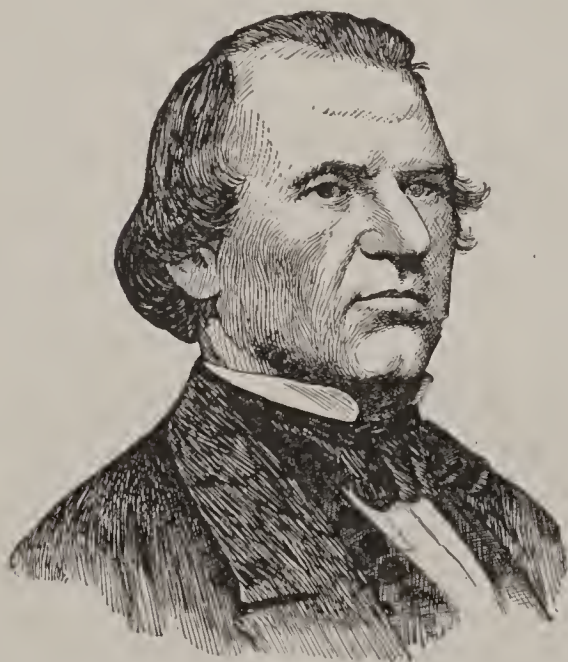


CONFEDERATE BATTLE
FLAG

CHAPTER XVII

RECONSTRUCTION; SUBSEQUENT EVENTS

439. The Death of Lincoln. — In the hour of victory the great heart of the President was filled with pity for the South. At a cabinet meeting, April 14, which proved to be his last,



ANDREW JOHNSON

Mr. Lincoln said, "I hope there will be no persecution, no bloody work, after the war is over. No one need expect me to take any part in hanging or killing these men, even the worst of them. Enough lives have been sacrificed."

That night he was murdered by John Wilkes Booth, an actor, who in his senseless rage at the defeat of the Confederate cause killed the tender-hearted Lincoln, and thus robbed the South, in its time of need, of its best and most powerful friend. Two other Presidents have lost their lives at the hands of assassins: President Garfield (1881) and President McKinley (1901).

440. President Johnson. — In this most critical time the nation was without a President. For this reason haste was shown, and, three hours after Lincoln's death, the Vice-President, Andrew Johnson, took the oath of office as President of the United States.

Now that the Confederacy was crushed, the states that had

tried to leave the Union were without governments. To restore them to their proper places and to good government, was a very hard thing to do. Lincoln could have done the work better than any other man. President Johnson sought to restore the states at once to the Union. He intended to do it by himself, as being independent of Congress.

441. Pardons for Southern Soldiers. — Late in May, President Johnson issued a "Proclamation of Amnesty and Pardon" to all persons — except a few — who had fought for the South, on their taking the oath of loyalty to the Constitution. Those who were excepted were invited to apply for special pardon. Never, in all history, had a people defeated in war been given such generous treatment. Johnson seemed to be doing as President Lincoln would have done, had he lived. Many of those excepted asked for pardon; and none were refused.

During the summer several of the southern states set up state governments, which repealed the acts by which they had seceded. Each legislature voted that the Confederate war debt should not be paid, and each state ratified the Thirteenth Amendment prohibiting slavery. Then the President told them that they were states in the Union again, as they were before they seceded. The states elected Senators and Representatives to the National Congress under President Johnson's policy; but when Congress met in the fall, these men were not admitted. Congress said that the President had no right to give the seceded states such standing in the Union as he had assumed to give them.

442. The Condition of the Freedmen. — It was a bitter thing to the people of the South that the cause of slavery, for which they had fought so desperately, was lost. This feeling was increased by the lawless behavior of many of the freed-

men. Although the negroes were now free, they were also ignorant and unfit to govern themselves. There were many white rascals, or "scalawags," as they were called in the South, who played upon the ignorance, fear, and vanity of the black man. The "scalawags" aroused race hatred between the white and black people and did much to lead the ignorant negro into crime and violence. During "scalawag" rule in the Southern states there was a period of great danger both to life and property.

443. The President's Policy. — President Johnson, now the friend of the South, soon became its champion. He was as fully under the influence of the South as any Democratic President ever had been. He had forsaken the Republican party that elected him, as completely as Tyler had years before forsaken the Whig party that elected him. Paying no attention to the counsels of those who had put down the rebellion, he went ahead by himself to grant favors to the South, under what he called "My policy."

444. The Civil Rights Bill. — In 1866 Congress passed a law called the Civil Rights Bill. Its purpose was to protect the negroes from abuse in the South, and to give them the rights of white men under the United States law. By this bill the negroes or freedmen were declared to be citizens of the United States, having the same rights as white citizens, in every state and territory.

445. The Fourteenth Amendment. — In 1866, to prevent a possible repeal of the Civil Rights Bill, Congress proposed the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution, which made the negroes citizens. It also provided that the national debt should be paid; but that no debt incurred by the Confederacy should be paid. It also prohibited certain persons in the states that had seceded from holding office.

Other laws concerning the building up of the Union were passed by Congress. The President, seeming to resent the course of Congress in not leaving all such matters to him, vetoed almost every such law. But the laws were passed over his veto.

In 1866, Tennessee came into the Union, after ratifying the Fourteenth Amendment. The other seceded states would not ratify and were not then admitted.

446. The Ku-Klux Klan. — A secret society, called the Klu-Klux Klan, had sprung up in Tennessee, the purpose of which was to prevent rule and voting by negroes who were under the control of designing rascals from the North, called "Carpet-baggers." To effect this the members of the Klan made it their business to spread terror among the negroes so that they could control them. They rode at night in armed bands, hideously disguised, and dragged negroes from their beds and flogged them. They murdered many of them, and also some white men.

In 1871 Congress passed a law known as the Enforcement Act, under which the President might use the military force, and take other strong measures to secure peace and order. Under this law the Ku-Klux Klan was broken up, and better conditions in the South prevailed.

447. Military Government. — Congress passed a law, in 1867, over the President's veto, which divided the South into five districts, each of which was placed under military government. This law was known as the Military Reconstruction Law. It was passed because there were no legal governments in the Southern states, and in order that peace and good order might be enforced. The carrying out of this and some later laws checked the Ku-Klux outrages somewhat, but they did not end for some years.

In 1868 all the states but Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas had formed their governments, and ratified the Fourteenth Amendment, and their Senators and Representatives were in Congress. In 1870, the last state had taken the required course; and all the late Confederate states were in good standing as states of the Union, and were represented in Congress in 1871.

448. Enmity Between Congress and the President. — The President insisted on defying Congress, while Congress in many ways checked the President. In 1867 it was feared that the President intended to strengthen his power by removing officials and appointing to their places men friendly to him and his policy. To prevent this, Congress passed a law under which the President could not remove any of the higher officials without the consent of the Senate. It was called the Tenure of Office Law.

In defiance of Congress and of the law it had passed, President Johnson removed the secretary of war, and appointed another man to the place. The new man remained until Congress met and refused to confirm the President's appointment. Then the former secretary of war returned to the office. At this the President ordered his man to hold the office. For thus trying to override an Act of Congress, the President was charged with committing a crime and was tried by the Senate, sitting as a court. He was found not guilty by a very close vote, one vote saving him from impeachment.

449. Mexico. — When the war commenced, and the power of the United States to uphold the Monroe Doctrine seemed to be gone, the Emperor of France thought it a good time to start a monarchy in North America. He quarreled with Mexico, and sent troops there. Later he sent more until he had about sixty thousand French troops in Mexico.



THE CAPITOL AT WASHINGTON

The Mexican government was overthrown, and a brother of the Emperor of Austria was made Emperor of Mexico. France was warned by the United States that no monarchy would be allowed in Mexico; but the warnings were not heeded. In 1867 a very pointed request from the United States that



ULYSSES S. GRANT

French troops be withdrawn from Mexico was heeded, and the troops went back to France. After that the Mexicans overthrew the Emperor Maximilian, and he was put to death. Mexico is still a republic.

In 1867 Nebraska was admitted as a State of the Union. In the same year, Russian America was bought by the United States. Its name was changed to Alaska.

450. President Grant. — As the end of the presidential term drew near, the Republicans named for President, General Grant; while the Democrats named Horatio Seymour of New York, a man who had been governor of that state. Grant was elected.

451. The Fifteenth Amendment. — A few days before Grant took office, Congress proposed the Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution. The Amendment is a short one, giving to the negroes lately in slavery the right to vote. It was more than a year before the Amendment was ratified and became a part of the Constitution.

Thus the Thirteenth Amendment gave the slave freedom

(1865), the Fourteenth gave him the rights of a citizen (1868), and the Fifteenth (1870) protected him as a voter. The three Amendments settled forever the slavery question. They stand as showing the results of the war. Since the close of the war the "New South" has built up manufactures in many



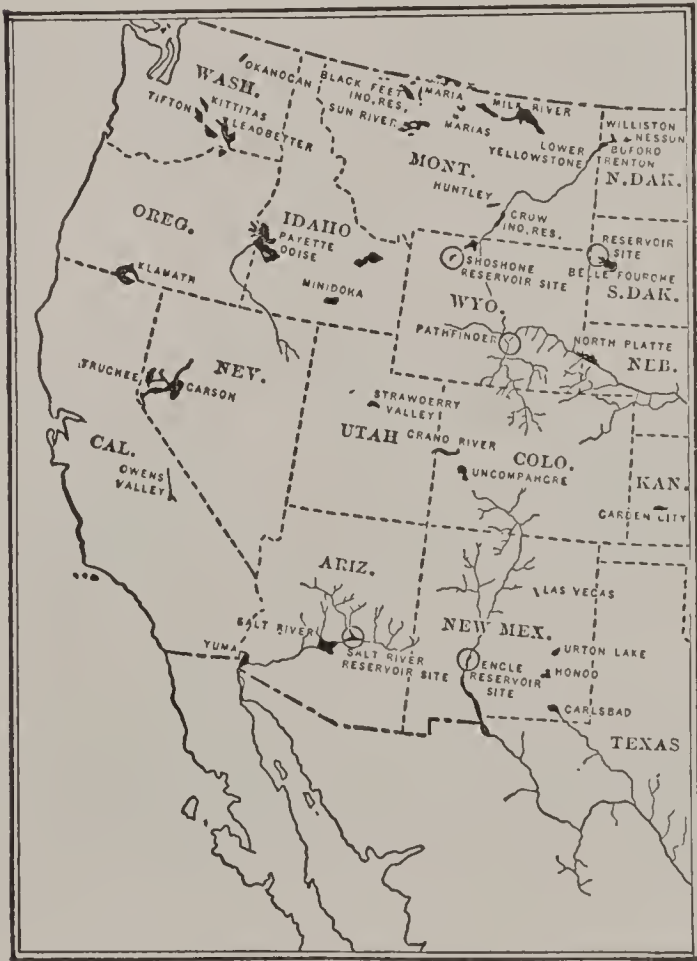
COMPLETION OF THE PACIFIC RAILROAD

Meeting of the locomotives of the Union and of the Central Pacific Railroads. From a photograph

of its leading cities. A most important change for the better has been made by the chance given to the negroes to learn trades and improved methods of crop-raising.

452. The Pacific Railroad. — In 1863 a railroad was begun from the Missouri River to the Pacific coast, railroads having already been built from the Atlantic coast to the great river. In 1869 the Pacific road was completed so that a train could

cross the continent. A train ran from New York to San Francisco. Since then several other lines to the Pacific have been built. These roads and their branches have brought into use millions of acres of good land that was worthless until, by these roads, crops could be sent to market. This land,



IRRIGATION CENTERS OF THE WEST

much of it in regions of little rainfall, has been made fertile by irrigation. In this way, water is carried in ditches for great distances over land upon which crops could not otherwise be raised.

In certain parts of the West, from Idaho, Dakota, and Oregon on the North to Texas in the South, are large cattle and sheep ranches. When ready for the market, the animals are driven to stations on one of the great rail-

roads and thence shipped to Chicago and other large cities of the West. They are there slaughtered and the meat sent to other parts of the country.

So great a country as the United States could hardly be held together, as one nation, were it not that railroads make traffic easy between its distant parts. Before the building of the Pacific railroads, it took one hundred and ten days to go from Omaha to San Francisco. These railroads have

opened to settlement the vast stretches of the West and have been the cause of the growth of large cities in one of the most important sections of our country.

453. The "Alabama" Claims. — The nation was fast recovering from the war; the fighting was over, and the settlements that followed the war were finished. Now there was a chance to take up and settle some things that had not yet been attended to. One of these was the matter of the war-vessels allowed by England during the war to go to sea from her ports in order to destroy our merchant vessels. The United States held England to account for the damage that those vessels had done, and made claims for payment. These claims were known as the *Alabama* claims because they were based on damages inflicted by that vessel.

In 1870 President Grant took the matter in hand. He made no appeal to England, but in his message to Congress he proposed that our government determine the claims which our citizens had against England, and pay them. Then the claimant against England would be the Government of the United States. He said that notice of this action should be sent to the English government.

The President's course showed England that our government was in earnest. War was raging in Europe between Germany and France, and England might be drawn into the contest. She saw that she must settle the claims of the United States, and agree that there should be no more sending out of such ships as the *Alabama*, by either nation against the other. She saw that if she did not settle these claims, she might suffer in some future war by having our nation treat her as she had treated us. The prospect of having her commerce swept from the sea by American-built *Alabamas*, whenever she might be at war with any other nation, was not

a pleasant one; and England settled the account. She paid many millions of dollars, and a treaty was made which put a stop forever to the building by either nation of ships as the *Alabama* to prey upon the merchant vessels of the other.

454. The Amnesty Act; Election; Panic. — In 1872 Congress passed the Amnesty Act, which gave to all Southern soldiers, except about three hundred of the leaders, their political rights.

In 1872 General Grant was elected for a second term as President. He was opposed by Horace Greeley, a Republican editor of New York, who was named for the office by the Democratic party, and also by a wing of the Republican party called the Liberal Republicans. During the following year, a great business panic swept the country.

455. Resumption of Specie Payment; Colorado Admitted. — From the early days of the war, coins of silver and gold had been out of circulation. For money, bills were used, ranging from five cents upward. The premium on gold and silver money, that is the value of coin above that of paper money, had steadily grown less, but was still considerable in 1875. At this time Congress passed a law, to take effect in 1879, that the government should resume payments in coin. It was believed that with the certainty of such payments at a set time, the difference in value between paper money and coin would gradually disappear. As had been expected, the difference in the purchasing power of greenbacks and gold lessened as 1879 drew near; and when the appointed day came, the difference disappeared and paper currency and coin had the same value. Since that time, the government and the banks, when paying money, have given people their choice between paper bills and gold.

In 1876 Colorado came into the Union as a state.

456. A Disputed Presidential Election. — In 1876 the Republicans named for President, Rutherford B. Hayes, who had been a general in the Union Army. The Democrats nominated Samuel J. Tilden of New York.

The election was very close, and the result was for a time in doubt. The Democrats had expected to carry all the southern states, and they claimed that they had done so in this case. The Republicans claimed to have carried South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana. It was finally decided that General Hayes had been elected to the Presidency.



RUTHERFORD B. HAYES

457. Paying the War Debt.

— So prosperous had the nation become that it began paying the national debt as soon as the war ended. By the beginning of 1879, four hundred million dollars had been paid. No other nation had ever paid its public debts so rapidly.

458. Chinese Immigration. — The rapid growth of population in California, under the influence of the Pacific railroad, and the many chances for wealth which that state offered, created a great need for laborers. Labor was very cheap in China, and soon Chinese laborers began to cross the ocean in great numbers to work in California. They were paid very low wages, and yet received several times as much as they earned in their own country. Their coming was encouraged by those who employed labor.

They came under a treaty between China and the United

States, which provided that the citizens of either country might visit the other country, but could not become citizens. These coolies, as they were called, worked at wages much lower than Americans could live upon. The presence in California of many thousands of coolies and the likelihood that many more would come were harmful to the state. The matter of the shutting out of Chinese laborers became a question of importance during the term of President Hayes.



JAMES A. GARFIELD



CHESTER A. ARTHUR

459. Election of Garfield. — In 1880 James A. Garfield, who had been a general in the Union Army, was elected by the Republican party to the Presidency. General Hancock, another famous Union soldier, was named by the Democrats. Both parties showed by their platform that they opposed Chinese immigration. During Garfield's term a treaty was made with China, under which the coming of Chinese laborers to this country was very much lessened.

460. Death of Garfield. — President Garfield was opposed to the theory that had prevailed since the time of President Jackson, that to the victors in a political contest belong the

spoils of office. He was beset by politicians to appoint their friends to office. In many cases he refused to comply with their wishes. The two Senators from New York asked that a certain man be given an important national office, and the President refused to appoint him. Then both Senators resigned. The many disputes about appointments to office crazed an office-seeker, who had failed to get the place he desired, and he shot the President, at Washington, July 2, 1881. President Garfield lived until September 19, following.

461. President Arthur. — The death of the President made the Vice-President, Chester A. Arthur of New York, President of the United States. The death of Garfield drew public attention to the evils of office-scrambling that followed each election, and led to the passage, in 1883, of an Act of Congress called the Civil Service Act. Under this Act those appointed to certain offices must have first passed an examination as to their fitness. It also protects good men in office from being discharged, and from being made to pay money for party purposes.

462. The New Navy. — When the war ended the United States possessed the most powerful navy in the world. In 1883, however, the war-ships of the nation had so far decayed, or were so much exceeded in power by the ships built later by other nations, that it was thought wise to begin the building of new vessels of a better type. From that beginning has grown the great American Navy of to-day.

463. The Brooklyn Bridge. — In 1883, after sixteen years of building, the Brooklyn bridge, the greatest structure of its kind then known, was finished. It was thought to be ample for traffic between New York and Brooklyn. But several other bridges, besides some tunnels under the river, are now in use, and all are taxed to their full capacity.

464. President Cleveland. — In 1884 the Democrats of the country elected their candidate; and Grover Cleveland of New York became President, the first Democrat to hold that office since the days of Buchanan.



GROVER CLEVELAND

In 1885 a law was passed forbidding the making of contracts under which people of other countries might be brought to the United States to work.

465. The Tariff. — The high tariff, which had been in force for many years, had yielded so much money to the government that all of the national debt that was due had been paid, and there was a surplus in the treasury. It could not be used to pay more of the debt because the creditors of the government, drawing interest on what the government owed them, would not take the cash for the bonds they held. Many people thought that the surplus should be used in works of a national character, especially for education in the South. The Democratic party favored reducing the tariff so that there would be less money coming to the government. As Cleveland's term drew near its end, the tariff became a great question, and on it turned the election of 1888.

466. President Harrison. — The Democrats named Grover Cleveland for a second term, while the Republicans nominated Benjamin Harrison of Indiana, grandson of former President Harrison. Harrison was elected.

Early in Harrison's term, a tariff bill prepared by William McKinley of Ohio was passed and became a law.

467. Oklahoma. — In 1889 the government bought from the Indians a large part of their land in Indian Territory, which they called Oklahoma, and opened it for settlement under the homestead law. Multitudes of people rushed to Oklahoma and took up land. So great has been the growth of population there that Oklahoma, including all of the former Indian Territory, is now a state, admitted in 1907.

468. American Republics. — During the same year a meeting of representatives of the American republics of Mexico, Central America, and South America was held. Arrangements were made whereby disputes between those nations could be settled without war.



BENJAMIN HARRISON

469. New States. — In 1889 North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, and Washington were admitted to the Union as States. In 1890 Idaho was admitted. Its constitution gave to women the right to vote and hold office. Since then, Colorado, Utah, Wyoming, Washington, California, Oregon, Kansas, and Arizona have given the same rights to women.

470. The People's Party. — During Harrison's term the farmers in all parts of the country formed a political party called the People's party. The new party demanded that Congress pass a bill for the free coinage of silver, at the ratio of 16 of silver to 1 of gold by weight; that is, that a silver dollar should weigh just 16 times as much as a gold dollar. This would enable the mine owners, and others having silver, to get it coined by the government without expense. The

bill failed, but in its stead one was enacted which directed that the secretary of the treasury should purchase publicly, each month, four and a half million ounces of silver at the market price, and coin a large part of it into dollars. It was assumed by some that this monthly purchase of silver by the government would advance the price of the metal; but it had no such effect. Silver still declined in value, until at length a silver dollar came to be worth less than half as much as a gold one, reckoned by the market value of the metal in each.

471. Cleveland Reëlected. — In 1892 the Republicans named Harrison for a second term as President. The People's party had a candidate, and the Democrats nominated Cleveland, who was elected. The election gave complete control of the Presidency, Senate, and House of Representatives to the Democratic party.

472. The Panic. — The folly of the silver law showed its effects fully in 1893. Foreign holders of national bonds, fearful that the government would seek to pay them in silver dollars, worth only sixty-seven cents each, began to sell them. They sold them at low prices, fearing that if they waited they would get less. People who had government notes, fearful that they would have to take cheap silver dollars in payment, rushed to get them paid. This took the gold that the government had, and it began to look as though the nation would soon have nothing but its tons of silver dollars with which to pay. There came a terrible panic, and times were hard. At length the silver law was repealed. But hard times lasted through Cleveland's term and a part of that of his successor.

473. The Tariff. — The Democrats now passed a tariff bill known as the Wilson Bill. Under the new tariff the receipts of the government fell off. Up to this time, ever since the war, there had been a rapid payment of the national

debt. The debt now began to grow, and it did not stop until it had increased two hundred and fifty million dollars.

474. The Monroe Doctrine. — The United States will not allow territory to be gained in America by any monarchy in Europe. That is the Monroe Doctrine. In 1895 Great Britain had a dispute with Venezuela over the boundary line between that country and some British territory which adjoined it. Weak Venezuela proposed that the question of the boundary be decided by outside parties. The United States urged that the matter be settled as Venezuela desired. It soon appeared that if Great Britain attempted to seize Venezuelan territory there was likely to be a war between that nation and our own. But wisdom prevailed, and the matter of the boundary line was settled, and the affair ended pleasantly. This settlement stands as a notable example of the modern method of settling national differences. It shows that nations, as well as men, may come to agreement by ways of peace.



WILLIAM MCKINLEY

475. President McKinley. — In 1896 both the Democratic party and the People's party named Wm. J. Bryan of Nebraska for President. The main demand of both was for free coinage of silver on the basis of fifty or sixty cents worth of silver being made into a coin by the government, for any citizen who might bring it to the mint. The coin was to be called a dollar and to pass as such.

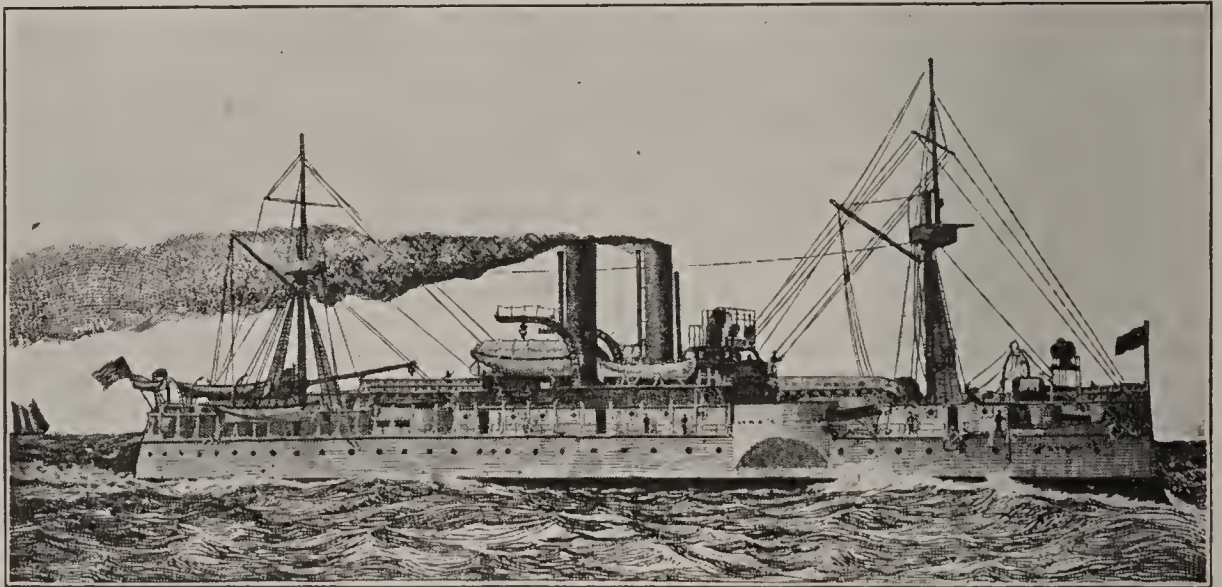
The Republican party nominated William McKinley of

Ohio, author of the McKinley Tariff Law, who was opposed to the free coinage of silver. Mr. McKinley was elected.

In 1896 Utah became a state of the Union.

In 1897 the Dingley Tariff Bill was passed, so framed as to make the tariff yield enough money to pay the running expenses of the government.

In 1898 the Hawaiian Islands, in the far Pacific, were annexed to the United States.



U. S. BATTLESHIP "MAINE"

476. The War with Spain. — The people of Cuba had for some time been in rebellion against Spain, which for centuries had held the island as a province. The war was waged savagely by both Cubans and Spaniards. Naturally the people of the United States felt well disposed toward the native Cubans, and this made Spain feel sullenly angry with us.

Early in 1898 an American naval vessel, the *Maine*, was sent to Havana, so that there might be a refuge there for such Americans as might have to flee from mob violence. The visit of the ship was a friendly one. While she lay in the harbor, the *Maine* was blown up by an explosion of dynamite and was destroyed, with nearly all her crew.

It was believed by the American people that this deed was done by the Spanish officers, and there was a strong feeling against Spain. In April Congress passed an Act directing the President to compel Spain to give Cuba her independence. Spain refused to receive the notice sent by the United States, and Congress declared war, April 19, 1898.

The natives in the Philippine Islands, subject to Spain, were at this time in rebellion; so that Spain while engaged in putting down one rebellion in Cuba, and another on the other side of the globe, was now facing war with the United States.

At once the Cuban ports were blockaded by our naval vessels, and Commodore Dewey, commanding our naval squadron in the far Pacific, was ordered to attack the Spanish fleet at Manila, the chief port of the Philippine Islands.

Dewey went to Manila and destroyed the Spanish fleet. The victory gave to the United States control of the Spanish possessions in the Pacific Ocean, and made our nation a power in the Eastern Hemisphere. Troops were sent to hold the islands.

Spain sent a large part of her home naval fleet to Cuba, to be in a position to attack the American war-ships or American seacoast cities, as chance might decide. The vessels entered the harbor of Santiago, Cuba.

As soon as it was known where Spain's war-ships were, the United States naval squadron stood guard over the harbor, so that they could not come out without a battle. Shutting up the Spanish fleet made the seaport cities of our country safe, and also enabled transport ships to carry soldiers and supplies to Cuba in safety.

The American army that had reached Cuba soon drove the Spanish forces into Santiago and threatened to attack the ships in the harbor with land batteries. Knowing that

the ships would be destroyed if they stayed in port, the Spanish made a desperate attempt to escape by running their vessels through the fleet which was watching for them outside. The attempt failed; and, in a three hours' fight, the Spanish war-ships were all destroyed.

With her two best naval squadrons lost, Spain saw no chance to succeed by further fighting; so she gave up Santiago and asked for peace.

477. The Treaty of Peace. — The treaty of peace was signed in December, 1898. The war had lasted about four months, and the Americans had lost about four hundred men. No American war-ship had been seriously damaged.

By the treaty Cuba became a free country independent of Spain, to govern herself under the protection of the United States. Porto Rico, an island of the West Indies, Guam, one of the Ladrone Islands, and the Philippines, all came to the United States. Thus Spain, leader in exploring the western world, and at one time having more land than all other nations, parted with her last western holdings, and with them the Philippines in the Eastern Hemisphere, which she had held ever since Magellan's voyage. Little did men of Washington's time foresee that our country was yet to extend westward, first to the Rocky Mountains; then to the Pacific; then to the far side of that greatest of oceans, even to Asia.

478. American Troops in China. — In 1900 a rebellion broke out in China, and many people from Japan, Europe, and the United States were murdered. Others were in danger, and troops were sent from Great Britain, Japan, Germany, France, Italy, and the United States to protect them. The invasion was successful after some fighting.

In the settlement, each of the invading nations, except the United States, proposed to take territory from China. The

United States insisted on fair play, and would not take land from the unfortunate nation. The stand that our nation took resulted in an arrangement under which China kept her territory and all the nations were allowed to trade in China.

479. Second Election of McKinley.— In 1900 McKinley was elected President for a second term. Theodore Roosevelt of New York was elected Vice-President.

During the year the Hawaiian Islands were given territorial government. In the Philippines there was trouble with the natives, who fought for independence against the United States, as they had done against Spain.

In 1901 the Cubans formed a government modeled on that of the United States. It provided for control by the United States, in the future, should such control be necessary.

In the Philippines, the rebel leader, Aguinaldo, was captured. Learning of the good intentions of the United States, he advised his followers to cease fighting and place themselves under the American government. This ended the war in the Islands, except such fighting as has been carried on since by native bandits and outlaws.

480. Death of President McKinley.— In September, 1901, President McKinley was murdered. The wretch who committed the deed was a low-bred, ignorant young man, a son of Polish immigrants who came to America to find freedom.



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THEODORE ROOSEVELT

The murderer was arrested at once, and after a trial was put to death. Vice-President Theodore Roosevelt was sworn in as President immediately after the death of McKinley, and at once began his duties.

481. Cuba as a Nation. — In 1902 the American flag was withdrawn from Cuba, and that Republic took its place among the nations. Its first President was Tomas E. Palma.

482. The Alaskan Boundary Line. — The boundary line between Russian America and the English possessions in North America was established in 1825. The line was not very closely defined, because, in that frozen region, land was thought to have so little value that it would not pay to take great pains in dividing it.

But after Russian America was bought by the United States and was named Alaska, the Americans found that, in the Yukon and Klondike regions, gold was plentiful. Some of the gold-bearing land was very near the line that divides Alaska from Canada. It was now desired by both governments that the line be laid out very carefully, to show which nation owned the gold-fields. The matter was referred to a commission of six men, and in 1903 they gave their decision. It mainly favored the claims of the United States.

483. The Panama Canal. — The war with Spain, and its results, made it plain that the United States needed a canal across the isthmus that connects the two American continents. Such a canal would give our naval vessels a short cut from ocean to ocean in case of war, and would enable our ships of commerce to make quick and safe passage at all times. The great commerce that we are to have in the future with Asia will make the isthmus-canal the most important water-way in the world. The United States is building the canal and is to control and defend it, though

it is to be open to the ships of all nations. The work is going on very rapidly, and will be completed in 1915.

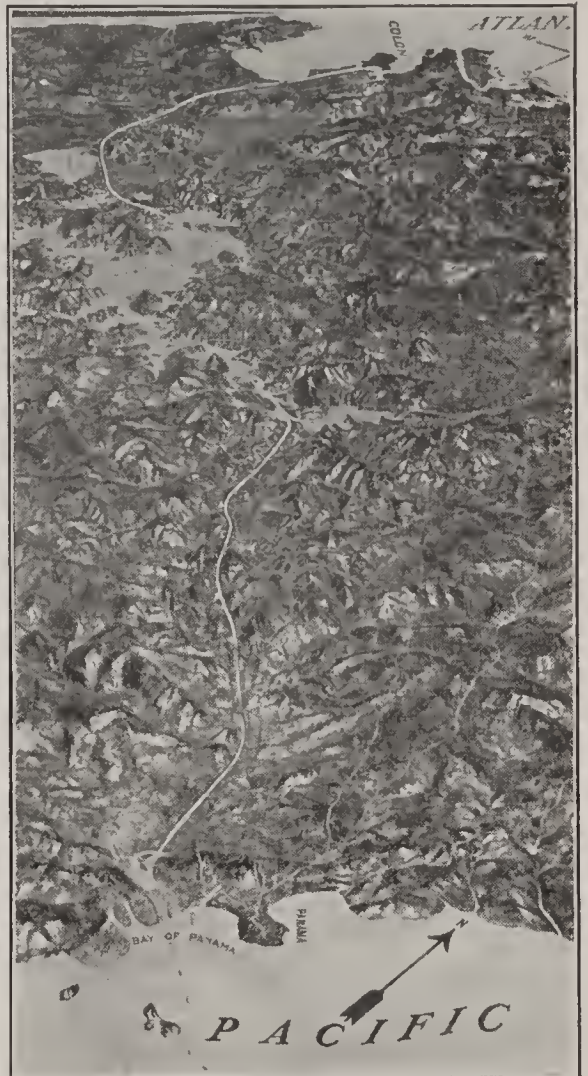
484. The Election of Roosevelt. — In 1904 Theodore Roosevelt was elected President. An important question during Roosevelt's term was the checking of the increasing power of corporations and trusts controlling immense capital.

War began between Russia and Japan in February, 1904. In the following year, President Roosevelt brought about a meeting of commissioners of the two nations, at Portsmouth, N. H. This meeting resulted in a treaty of peace between Russia and Japan.

In 1907-8 it appeared that the interests of the United States in the Pacific Ocean had grown so vast since the Spanish War as to make it fitting that our nation should be represented on that ocean, by a powerful fleet. Accordingly one of the strongest fleets of

warships that ever sailed was sent from our Atlantic to our Pacific coast, by a voyage around South America.

485. President Taft. — The year 1908 being a presidential year, the Republican National Convention met at Chicago. William Howard Taft of Ohio and James S. Sherman of New York were the nominees of the party. The Democrats



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RELIEF MAP OF THE PANAMA
CANAL

held their convention at Denver. William J. Bryan of Nebraska and John W. Kern of Indiana were the nominees. Taft and Sherman were elected. President Taft had long experience in the service of our government. In 1900 he



WILLIAM H. TAFT

was appointed president of the United States Philippine Commission. During the following year he was made the first civil governor of the Philippine Islands. In 1908 he was secretary of war in President Roosevelt's cabinet.

486. The Return of the American Battleship Fleet. —

In February, 1909, the American battleship fleet which left our shores late in 1907 completed the circumnavigation of the globe. This great armored

fleet of sixteen battleships carried as crews and officers nearly fifteen thousand men. By this voyage our fleet gave foreign nations evidence of the strength of the naval power of the United States. The trip also proved that the American navy, manned by disciplined crews and skilled officers, was able to cruise for great distances with speed and certainty.

It took about fourteen months to complete the voyage, and the fleets during that time traveled nearly forty-five thousand miles. On the westward journey, the battleships steamed along the coast of South America, and passing through the Strait of Magellan, reached San Francisco during the summer of 1908. The fleet went thence to Manila, visiting

on its way the Hawaiian Islands and Japan. It returned to this country by way of the Suez Canal and the Mediterranean Sea.

487. The New Census. — A counting or census of the population of our country has been made every ten years since 1790. The enumeration beginning in 1910 is the thirteenth census. The new census bill was passed by Congress early in 1909. This bill provided for a special test as to the fitness of those who would be census takers. Taking the national



THE WESTWARD MOVEMENT OF THE CENTER OF POPULATION
OF THE UNITED STATES

census makes necessary the employment of many thousands of men and the spending of millions of dollars. The work is in charge of an officer styled the Director of the Census.

The thirteenth census showed a population of about ninety-two million people. Emigration to our shores from European countries is constantly adding to our population. Twelve thousand immigrants arrived here during a single day in April, 1909. These people came principally from Southern Europe, although all nations of Europe were represented.

488. The Sixteenth Amendment to the Constitution. — Congress proposed before the end of the summer session (1909)

a new amendment to the Constitution. By January, 1913, this amendment had been ratified by the legislatures of three fourths of the states. The purpose of the sixteenth amendment is to give to Congress the power to tax incomes. During President Cleveland's second administration, Congress had passed such a law, but it was finally declared unconstitutional by the United States Supreme Court. Hence it was necessary to amend the Constitution before such a tax could be levied.

489. The Payne-Aldrich Tariff Bill. — In our country the tariff has always been a matter of great importance and a leading question between the two prominent political parties. A new tariff law, called the Payne-Aldrich Bill, was enacted in August, 1909. It raised the rates of duties on some goods and lowered them on others. This tariff bill, like all other tariff laws, has proved satisfactory to some of the people and unsatisfactory to others.

490. Discovery of the North Pole. — During the first week in September, 1909, a dispatch was received from one of the Shetland Islands stating that Dr. Frederick A. Cook of Brooklyn, N. Y., had discovered the North Pole on April 21, 1908. A few days later a dispatch was received from Labrador signed by the noted Arctic explorer, Commander Peary of the United States Navy. Peary's dispatch read, "Stars and Stripes nailed to the Pole." Commander Peary reached the Pole April 6, 1909. Dr. Cook reached Denmark and was received at Copenhagen with great enthusiasm. After a long delay his proofs were submitted to the University of Copenhagen, and upon examination by that institution were pronounced insufficient. The National Geographical Society of America has decided that Commander Peary reached the North Pole on the date named.

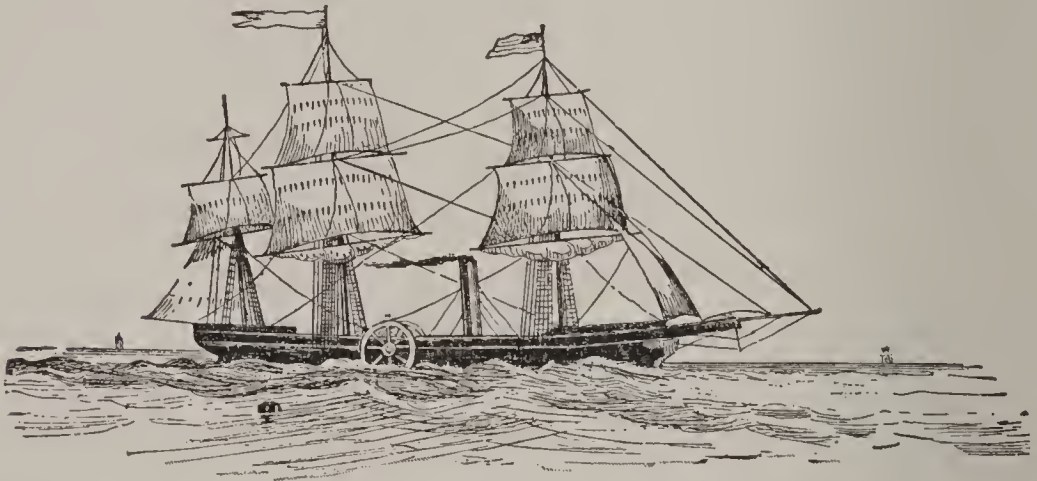
491. The Hudson-Fulton Celebration. — During the fall of 1909 a monster celebration was held in the vicinity of New York City to commemorate the third voyage of Henry Hudson (1609), and the discovery by Robert Fulton of the application of steam power to the propulsion of boats (1807). It was one of the greatest spectacular events in the history of our country and attracted world-wide attention. Reproductions of the *Half Moon* and the *Clermont*, convoyed by the battleships of many nations, joined in the naval parade along the Hudson River. There were also numerous land parades in which floats represented important historical events in our growth as a nation.

492. Aërial Navigation. — Progress was made during the year 1909 in the improvement of aëroplanes. One of these machines has traveled a distance of ten miles at a speed rate of more than forty miles an hour. Mr. Edison, the great inventor, has prophesied that in the very near future, aërial navigation will be safe and practicable.

493. Arizona and New Mexico Admitted to the Union. — The only remaining territories within the United States, Arizona and New Mexico, were admitted to statehood early in the year 1912. The total number of States is now forty-eight and two new stars were added to our flag July 4, 1912.

494. Notable Inventions; Achievements of the Last Century; Steam as a Motive Power. — The use of steam as a power for moving boats was first made in 1807 by Robert Fulton, who traveled from New York to Albany in the *Clermont*. His discovery of the application of steam power to the propulsion of boats was one of the most important ever made. In 1811 the first steamboat ran on western rivers between Pittsburgh and New Orleans. Soon afterward, the

first steam ferryboat in America was in operation between New York and Hoboken, while in 1819, the steamship *Savannah* crossed the ocean from Savannah to Liverpool in the then wonderfully quick time of twenty-six days. As early as 1837 there were two hundred and fifty steamboats plying up and down the Mississippi River and its branches. The



THE "SAVANNAH"

The first steamship that crossed the Atlantic

Cunard Steamship Company was sending its steamers across the Atlantic, and one of them surprised the world by making the passage in less than thirteen and a half days. The trip is now made in about one third of that time.

495. The Development of Labor-saving Machinery during the Last Century.—The cotton-gin was one of the most important inventions of the preceding century, but later inventors have been busy.

By 1840, the McCormick reaper was in use. By the middle of the century, stockings were knitted by curious machines moved by steam power. The click of the steel knitting needles in the hands of the busy housewife could still be heard, however, in thousands of homes, just as it was in colonial times.

In 1846 Elias Howe invented a machine to sew cloth. It was a wonderful invention. Every garment that is worn in the civilized parts of the world is made more cheaply because of it.

Great strides have been made in the applications of electricity since Morse's invention of the telegraph, and, in 1876, the telephone came into use and electric lighting for the illumination of streets and buildings had been placed in operation.

In 1885 the long-distance telephone was perfected and cars run by electricity were built. In 1897 the practice of telegraphing without wires was begun, and now messages may be sent in this manner for great distances.

Early in the last century carding, spinning, and weaving were done by machines run by water-power, though home-weaving continued to be the method of cloth manufacture for many years. In those days the spinning-wheel and the hand-loom were parts of the furniture of nearly all households. Farmers raised their own wool and flax, and their wives made the family clothing from them. Methods of manufacturing and agriculture have been greatly improved by the invention and perfection of labor-saving machinery. The United States is now the greatest manufacturing nation in the world and produces more agricultural products than any other country. This has been made possible by improved farm and factory machinery. Ploughing, reaping, and threshing, once done by hand, at great expense of time, are now accomplished by the use of machines adapted to such work.

The old method of printing by hand-presses has been superseded by the far more rapid work of huge printing presses and type-setting machines. By means of these

presses thousands of copies of newspapers may be printed and folded in an hour's time.

Steam shovels and hoisting-cranes speedily perform the work formerly requiring hundreds of laborers. Electricity has also worked its marvels in lightening labor and saving time.

496. The Atlantic Cable. — As early as 1851 cables in successful operation had been laid under the English Channel and also across the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Oceanic communication by cable was made possible by Morse's invention of the telegraph.

In 1858 a message was sent across the Atlantic Ocean from the Queen of England to the President of the United States, by means of a cable which had been laid under the ocean between Ireland and Newfoundland. In less than a month, however, it was found impossible to transmit messages, and no further attempt was made to lay a cable for several years. In 1866 a cable was laid from the west coast of Ireland to Newfoundland, and one lost in midocean the previous year was recovered and connected with the Newfoundland coast. With some interruptions of service, we have had cable communication with Europe ever since, there now being many trans-Atlantic cables in operation.

The steamer, *The Great Eastern*, then the largest vessel afloat and specially fitted for the purpose, laid the first cables (1865–1866) which were in interrupted use for a number of years. We owe the successful completion of the Atlantic cable to the enterprise and energy of Cyrus W. Field, who organized construction companies, raised money, and gave his best energies for many years to the vast enterprise which he brought to a successful conclusion.

By means of the trans-Atlantic cables business between

this country and Europe is transacted in a few hours, while foreign news is soon known and published in our daily newspapers.

497. The Seventeenth Amendment to the Constitution. — Congress in 1911 proposed another additional amendment to the Constitution which provides that United States senators are to be chosen by popular vote instead of being elected by the various state legislatures. This amendment has been ratified by the legislatures of three fourths of the states and has thus become a law.

498. The Presidential Election of 1912. — In the Presidential campaign of 1912, the Republican National Convention met at Chicago in June. After a hard struggle between the followers of President Taft and Theodore Roosevelt, the former was nominated with Vice-President Sherman to lead the Republican national ticket.



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WOODROW WILSON

At the close of the convention about one hundred of the delegates with other friends of Colonel Roosevelt formed the Progressive party and named Roosevelt for President. Arrangements were then made for holding a formal convention.

The first national convention of the party assembled at Chicago in August. Theodore Roosevelt and Gov. Hiram W. Johnson of California were nominated for President and Vice-President.

The delegates of the Democratic National Convention met at Baltimore in June, continuing in session until July 3. On the forty-sixth ballot Woodrow Wilson of New Jersey was nominated for the Presidency. Thomas R. Marshall of Indiana was nominated for Vice-President.

The Socialist and Prohibition parties also presented candidates for the Presidency.

Vice-President Sherman, who was the candidate of the Republican party for reëlection, died a few days before the election.

In the election the Democratic party was successful, carrying forty-one states for Wilson and Marshall.

499. Trouble in Mexico. — A revolt against the administration of President Madero began in a northern province of Mexico, during the close of President Taft's administration. The situation became so serious that the President issued a proclamation warning all Americans in Mexico against taking part in the revolution. In February, 1913, the revolutionists overthrew the forces of Madero and gained control in the City of Mexico. President Madero, refusing to resign the presidency, was soon afterward murdered, and General Huerta was proclaimed provisional President. Our government, fearing that Americans in Mexico might be in danger, sent troops to Galveston that they might be ready to embark for that country. The followers of Madero in turn started a revolution against Huerta, whom our government refused to recognize as President.

In April, 1914, an American naval officer and some sailors were thrown into prison at Tampico, where they had gone ashore to get a supply of gasoline. Admiral Mayo, in command of our fleet, demanded an apology from the Mexican authorities, and a salute of twenty-one guns for the American



WOODROW WILSON TAKING THE OATH AS PRESIDENT, MARCH 4, 1913

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flag. The same demand was made upon Huerta, who refused to comply. While Congress was debating as to the wording of the resolution giving approval to the intention of President Wilson to use armed force, he ordered Rear-Admiral Fletcher to seize the customhouse at Vera Cruz. This was done in order to prevent the landing of war materials from a German steamer which was at anchor in the harbor.

On April 21, 1914, our marines and sailors landed, and seized the customhouse and adjacent parts of the city with small loss of life. At this time, the ministers of Argentina, Brazil, and Chile offered their services to Secretary of State Bryan for a settlement of the difficulty. This offer was accepted by both President Wilson and General Huerta. Our President said that no settlement would be agreed to that did not provide for the retirement of Huerta and the establishment of constitutional government in Mexico. The peace commission, composed of the three South American ministers, three Americans, and three Mexicans met at Niagara Falls. Nothing, however, was effected by these mediators. In the meantime, Huerta and his forces remained in Mexico City, while Mexican armies, opposed to him, under General Villa and others, were winning victories in the northern provinces and pressing toward the capital city, which was taken by Carranza on August 16.

After the retirement of Huerta, Generals Carranza and Villa with their armies began to fight each other for control of the government. In November, 1914, our troops were withdrawn from Vera Cruz, as there seemed then to be no further danger to the lives and property of American citizens residing in Mexico.

500. The Underwood Tariff Bill and the Income Tax Measure. — Shortly after taking office, President Wilson

called an extra session of Congress to consider the reduction of the tariff. To provide for any possible loss of revenue from lowering the duties on imports, an income tax measure was also proposed. The levying of an income tax was authorized by the Sixteenth Constitutional Amendment. The Income Tax law provides for a tax of one per cent on incomes of more than three thousand dollars and for an increased tax on incomes of twenty thousand dollars or more. The President read his message on the proposed tariff legislation to both Houses of Congress sitting as one body in the House of Representatives. This was the first time since the administration of President John Adams that a President of the United States had appeared before Congress to read a message. The President in his address called attention to the fact that a new tariff measure was necessary, not so much for protecting the industries of our country as to prevent the building up of private monopolies. The Underwood bill provides for a large reduction in the tariff, especially in food stuffs.

This measure became a law in October, 1913. That it will materially reduce the cost of living has been the subject of much dispute. In estimating its possible benefits, it must be remembered that the quantity of our imported goods has greatly decreased since the beginning of the great war in Europe, in August, 1914, and hence the revenue gained from imports has necessarily diminished.

501. Woman Suffrage. — The woman suffrage movement is gaining strength throughout the country. In March, 1914, the question of submitting to the various state legislatures an amendment to the Constitution of the United States allowing woman suffrage throughout the country was defeated in Congress. The ground taken by the House of Represen-

tatives in this matter, and embodied in a resolution, was that woman suffrage is a state and not a national question.

The elections of 1914 in Montana and Nevada gave the vote to women. Women may now vote in eleven states and in the Territory of Alaska. These eleven states are Utah, Wyoming, Washington, Idaho, California, Kansas, Oregon, Arizona, Colorado, Nevada, and Montana. In many other states women have partial suffrage, voting only on certain questions. In Illinois the Legislature has given women the right to vote upon all questions provided for under the state constitution.

502. Mothers' Day. The Nation's Tribute to its Mothers. — Pursuant to joint resolution of Congress, the President issued a proclamation on May 9, 1914, calling upon government officials to display the United States flag upon government buildings on the second Sunday in May in each year, "as a public expression of love and reverence for the mothers of our country." The President also invited the people of the United States to display the flag at their homes, or other suitable places, on this day.

503. The Federal Reserve Banking Act. — In September, 1913, a new currency bill passed the lower house of Congress and became law a few months later. It is thought that this measure will put an end to business panics and "hard times." The provisions of the new law are to be carried into effect by the Federal Reserve board, which consists of the Secretary of the Treasury and others appointed by the President. Under its provisions certain banks, called Federal Reserve banks, have been established in different parts of the country to receive deposits from the various National banks. The State banks may also make deposits in the Reserve banks. When money is scarce, banks may turn over to the Reserve

banks business notes or commercial paper and receive in return fifty per cent of its value in money. The payment of money thus loaned to National or State banks by the Federal Reserve banks is guaranteed by the United States. This new banking act also provides that money may be transferred from one Reserve bank to another as demand may arise in different localities.

504. The Panama Canal. — The great undertaking of digging and opening this canal was made the occasion for a celebration held in San Francisco in 1915, at the Panama-Pacific Exposition.

The first vessel to pass through the canal was an old steamer rigged with a crane for hoisting purposes. This boat, which had been used in former attempts to dig the canal, completed the journey under her own steam, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, in January, 1914. The canal was not ready for general use until August, 1914.

505. The Panama Canal Tolls. — The Canal Tolls law, passed by Congress in 1913, provided that all American vessels plying from port to port along our coast might pass through the canal free. An American vessel sailing from Maine to San Francisco might go through the canal without paying toll. On the other hand, a British steamer sailing from Halifax to Seattle would be obliged to pay toll. Great Britain objected to this law, claiming that it violated the terms of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty.

This treaty, among other things, provides that the canal should be open "on terms of entire equality" to the ships "of all nations." Many of our citizens held that the words "all nations" meant all foreign nations. Others contended that the terms of the treaty were plain and that the Canal Tolls law was a clear violation of it. In March, 1914, Presi-

dent Wilson addressed both Houses of Congress and urged the repeal of this law. After many debates Congress repealed the measure in June, 1914. The repeal bill provided that it was not to be understood that the United States gave up any of its rights under the Hay-Pauncefote treaty.



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GATUN LAKE AND SOUTH END OF LOCKS, PANAMA CANAL

506. The Immigration Bill. — In February, 1914, the House of Representatives passed what is known as the Immigration Bill, which provided that all immigrants should be able to read and write in some language. This measure was favored by many Americans who believe that immigration

should be restricted in some way and that the imposition of a literacy test is as good a method as any other. Others think that no literacy test should be required, inasmuch as many immigrants who might become desirable citizens are unable to read and write. This measure passed the Senate early in 1915 by a large vote. The bill also provided, by amendments insisted upon by the Senate and concurred in by the House, that immigrants of the African or Negro race, as well as those who believe in and practice polygamy, should be excluded. The bill was vetoed by President Wilson, chiefly on account of the literacy test. An attempt by the House to pass it over the veto failed by a small margin. President Taft had vetoed a similar bill and for the same reason.¹

507. The Progress of the Prohibition Movement. — A resolution was introduced in the House of Representatives in 1914, proposing an amendment to the Constitution of the United States prohibiting the sale, manufacture, or transportation of intoxicating liquor for drinking purposes in the United States and in all territory subject to its jurisdiction. The measure failed of passage, as a two-thirds affirmative vote is necessary to submit a constitutional amendment to the state legislatures. The vote in favor of national prohibition, however, was very large. The prohibition movement is growing very rapidly in this country, nineteen states having voted against the liquor traffic. A law of Alabama prohibits liquor advertisements, and also provides that periodicals containing advertisements of alcoholic liquors shall not be allowed to be sent into the state. The use of intoxicating liquor has also been forbidden in the United States Navy. The movement is also extending in foreign countries, notably in Russia and France.

¹ This bill became a law in 1916.

508. The Presidential Election of 1916. — In the presidential campaign of 1916, the delegates of the Republican National Convention nominated for President and Vice-President Charles E. Hughes and Charles W. Fairbanks. The Democratic delegates at their National Convention re-nominated Woodrow Wilson of New Jersey, for President, and Thomas R. Marshall of Indiana, for Vice-President. The result of the election was in doubt for several days, but the late returns from California and other western states showed that the Democratic candidates were elected.

SUMMARY

1. The death of Lincoln.
2. President Johnson; his policy.
3. The Civil Rights Bill.
4. The Fourteenth Amendment.
5. The South under military government.
6. President Johnson impeached.
7. France in Mexico. Maximilian.
8. Nebraska admitted.
9. Alaska purchased.
10. General Grant elected President.
11. The Fifteenth Amendment.
12. The Pacific Railroad.
13. The *Alabama* Claims.
14. Colorado admitted.
15. A disputed presidential election.
16. Chinese immigration.
17. Election of Garfield; his death
18. President Arthur.
19. The new navy.
20. Grover Cleveland becomes President.
21. The tariff.
22. President Harrison elected.
23. Oklahoma becomes a territory in 1889; a state in 1907.
24. New states admitted: North and South Dakota, Montana, Washington, and Idaho.
25. Cleveland reelected. New Tariff Bill.

26. The Venezuela dispute.
27. William McKinley becomes President.
28. Utah admitted (1896).
29. The Hawaii Islands annexed.
30. The war with Spain.
31. The Panama Canal.
32. Election of President Roosevelt.
33. President-elect Taft.
34. The Democratic Convention.
35. The Inauguration of President Taft.
36. The return of the American battleship fleet.
37. The New Census Bill. Growth of our country in population.
38. The Sixteenth Amendment to the Constitution.
39. The new Tariff Bill.
40. The Discovery of the North Pole.
41. The Hudson-Fulton Celebration.
42. Aërial Navigation.
43. Admission of the states of Arizona and New Mexico.
44. Notable inventions and achievements of the last century.
45. The development of labor-saving machinery during the last century.
46. The Atlantic Cab'le.
47. The Seventeenth Amendment to the Constitution.
48. The Presidential Election of 1912.
49. Trouble in Mexico.
50. The Underwood Tariff Bill and Income Tax measure.
51. Woman Suffrage.
52. The second Sunday in May to be known as Mothers' Day.
53. The Federal Reserve Banking Act
54. The Panama Canal.
55. The Panama Canal Tolls.
56. The Immigration Bill.
57. The Progress of the Prohibition Movement.
58. The Presidential Election of 1916.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. Who succeeded Lincoln as President?
2. What was one of Johnson's first official acts?
3. What important laws were passed by Congress during Johnson's administration?
4. What was the Ku-Klux Klan? What was done to suppress it?
5. What Federal law did Johnson override? With what result?
6. Who was Maximilian? What did he attempt to do?
7. What was the Fifteenth Amendment?
8. Why was the Pacific Railroad important?
9. How were the *Alabama* claims settled?
10. What was the Enforcement Act?
11. Why were Chinese immigrants undesirable?
12. Who was elected President in 1880?
13. Who succeeded him?
14. Who was the first Democratic President since Buchanan's time?
15. Who was elected President in 1888?
16. When was Oklahoma admitted as a State?
17. Was Cleveland reëlected? When?
18. When was McKinley first elected?
19. Give an account of the war with Spain?
20. How will the Panama Canal be useful?
21. When did Roosevelt first become President?
22. Who was elected President in 1908?
23. Who were the nominees of the Democratic party?
24. What great voyage was made by our battleships? How long did this voyage take? Name some of the principal places visited by this fleet.
25. When was the new Census Bill passed? Who has charge of the taking of the census? What is our present estimated population? From what countries of Europe do most of our immigrants now come?
26. What are the new amendments of the Constitution? What must be done by the Legislatures of how many States, in order that these proposed amendments may become a part of the Constitution?
27. What is the effect of the new Tariff Bill of 1909?
28. Tell about the conflicting claims to the discovery of the North Pole.
29. Give an account of the Hudson-Fulton celebration.
30. What is meant by aërial navigation?
31. What were the last two States admitted to the Union?

32. Who was elected President in 1912? In 1916?
33. Name some notable inventions and achievements of the last century.
34. Give an account of the trouble in Mexico.
35. What new Tariff Bill has been passed? What is the new Income Tax measure?
36. Tell about the progress of the Woman Suffrage movement.
37. When did Congress provide for the designation of a day to be known as Mothers' Day? Why was this done? How is this day to be celebrated?
38. What do you know about the Federal Reserve Banking act?
39. Is the Panama Canal now open for navigation?
40. Tell about the repeal of the Canal Tolls law.
41. What was the Immigration bill? On what ground was it vetoed?
42. Is the Temperance cause making progress in this country? To what extent?

CHAPTER XVIII

GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE COUNTRY

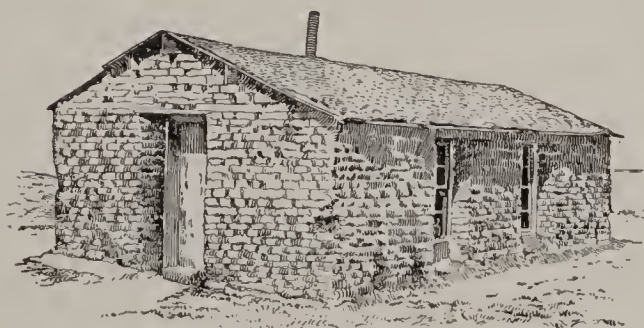
509. Territorial Expansion; Population. — From the inauguration of President Washington to 1820, the country grew much in area and population. The Louisiana Purchase comprised twice as much territory as that of the thirteen original colonies. The states of Missouri and Louisiana were parts of this vast tract. In 1821, the northern part of the Louisiana Purchase was called the Missouri Territory, and that portion between Missouri and Louisiana was then the Arkansas Territory. Between 1791 and 1821, from territory east of the Mississippi River, seven more states had been formed. In 1819, the Territory of Florida had been purchased from Spain during President Monroe's administration. During the half century after the close of the Revolutionary War, our country had increased in territory nearly threefold, while population had increased from four to thirteen millions. For years, Philadelphia had been the most important city in the United States, and had been for ten years (1789-1799) the Federal Capital. By the year 1830, New York had become the chief commercial city, while St. Louis was a small settlement on the western frontier. In 1860, the population had increased to more than thirty-one million people, who were living in thirty-three states and a number of territories.

At this time, there were more people in the North than in any other section. This was because fewer immigrants had

settled in the South and West. They had remained in the North, where there were more ways of earning a living and where they did not compete with slave labor.

510. The Western Movement. — Before the Central and Union Pacific railroads had been completed (1869), travel west from the Missouri River was slow and difficult. Passengers had formerly been carried to California in stage coaches, along the old prairie trails. The journey of twenty-five days was dangerous because of possible attacks from hostile Indians. After the completion of the Pacific Railroad, however, the settlement of the West went on more rapidly.

511. The Homestead Law. — Population also increased in the West through the operation of the Homestead Law (1862).



A SOD HOUSE

This provided that 160 acres of government land should be given to each settler who, within a certain time, should build a home and cultivate the soil. Hundreds of families from the East and the middle

West occupied the land thus provided for them by the government. Emigrants from northwestern Europe also took land under the provisions of this law. The newcomers, with their families, moved into this region, traveling slowly in “prairie schooners.”

512. Building a Home in the West; the New Farming. — When the journey had ended, the work of building a home was commenced. If the land was wooded, a log house was built, but upon prairie land, sod was used for this purpose. When other settlers came, better homes were constructed. Soon

there was a store, then a church and a schoolhouse. A prosperous farming community soon had the railway, the telegraph line, and the post office.

When more immigrants came, great tracts of land were cultivated and farming was done on a larger scale. As new inventions were made, steam plows were used and thousands of acres were soon ready for planting. Steam harvesters and threshers were used to gather grain. These did the work of hundreds of men, in much less time.

513. Trouble with the Indians.—In 1873, the Modoc Indians of southern Oregon attacked and killed settlers. General Canby and peace commissioners, sent to northern California to end the trouble, were suddenly attacked during a parley. Canby and one of the peace commissioners were killed. Several Modoc leaders were hanged for these murders, and the rest of the tribe was placed upon reservations in the Indian Territory.



SITTING BULL

In 1876, the Sioux Indians of South Dakota, under the leadership of their chief medicine man, Sitting Bull, attacked settlers in Dakota, Montana, and Wyoming. Troops under General George Custer were sent to Montana, where Custer and about three hundred of his men, surrounded by a large force of Indians, were killed. The Sioux were later defeated, Sitting Bull was killed, and peace was restored. This was the last important Indian uprising.

514. Early Methods of Work. — Formerly, the sawmill for cutting logs and the gristmill in which grain was ground into flour or meal were first operated either by horse power or by water power. Later, the small steam flour mills, built upon the banks of country streams, were not large enough for the increasing crops of grain. Large mills were therefore built in which grain was ground in great quantities and flour sent to all parts of the country. When more grain was sent to these mills than could be immediately ground, it was stored in huge “elevators” until it could be made into flour. The manufacture of lumber also increased when logs were sawed into planks by rotary saws, driven by steam power. The work of felling trees and trimming them into logs was performed by lumbermen who spent the winter in the forests for that purpose. When the logs were ready, they were hauled to a river, whence they were floated, as soon as spring came, to the sawmills.

515. Inventions. — Our foremost American inventor, Thomas A. Edison, has given us the phonograph by which sound can be reproduced. Similar in principle is the dictaphone which reproduces words spoken into a transmitter. Letters and other documents are now printed by typewriting machines, another most useful invention.

516. Electricity. — Electricity has now largely taken the place of steam in driving machinery. Railroad trains and other agencies for transportation are using electricity for motive power. We have seen how electricity has made the telegraph and telephone possible as means of communication, and how for many years it has been used for illuminating purposes. Another invention made possible by the application of electricity is the use of the X-ray in surgical practice. Electricity is transmitted for great distances, after it has been

generated by water power. Niagara Falls furnishes electric power to places one hundred fifty miles distant.

517. Motors. — The discovery that gasoline engines afforded motive power was later applied to running carriages and wagons. The first crude vehicles were improved until the automobile was produced. The automobile affords a

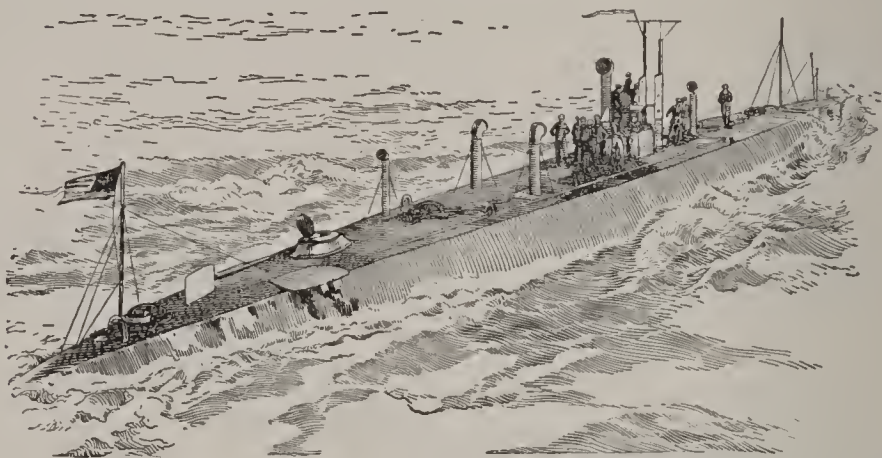


RAILROAD TRAIN AND ELECTRIC LOCOMOTIVE

quick method of carrying passengers and freight from place to place, and its almost universal use has resulted in the building and proper maintenance of fine country roads. A journey which formerly took a week by horse and carriage can now be made in an automobile in one day. Years ago, the old-fashioned high bicycle was used for travel. This, after a while, was superseded by the low safety wheel, which, when equipped with a small gasoline engine, became the motor-cycle.

Another invention of great importance in naval warfare is the submarine, while travel through the air has been effected by the airplane. A modification of the latter machine is the

sea-plane, or hydro-aëroplane, which may be propelled in the water or through the air. In 1919 sea-planes had crossed the Atlantic and an aëroplane made the journey without stop from Newfoundland to Ireland.



A SUBMARINE

518. Growth in Manufacturing. — Owing to improved methods in manufacturing, mills and factories were built throughout the country — especially cotton and woolen mills. The spinning of thread and the weaving of cloth by the spinning wheel and the hand loom were very slow processes, and the output was small. When the power loom, driven by steam, came into use, there was a great increase in this industry. The use of steam for driving machinery made it possible to build manufacturing plants in the cities, instead of along water courses in the country districts. This increased the population of cities and their commercial importance. With the improvement in textile industries during the last century grew the development in the manufacturing of iron from ore. Iron foundries were built in various parts of the country, but especially in Pennsylvania, as early as 1803.

519. Early Railroads. — Before 1850, railroads had been built in the eastern part of the United States. By 1852 these railroads had been extended as far west as Chicago, and

five years later to St. Louis. The building of railroads rapidly opened communication between the East and the West, and in 1860 several such roads were in successful operation. Only a few railroads had been constructed from North to South, and this retarded the development of commercial relations, which might sooner have arisen between these two sections.

520. The Financial Panic of 1873. — In 1869, the Central and Union Pacific railroads had been completed and the growing population in the extreme Northwest — in Idaho, Washington, and Oregon — caused the building of the Northern Pacific Railroad from Duluth to Puget Sound. In the ten years from 1861 to 1871, nearly two billion dollars had been spent in railroad construction. The population of the territory through which these lines passed was insufficient to afford enough business to make adequate returns for such large investments. When other financial demands were made upon the persons and banking institutions investing these large amounts in railroad building, they could not be met. The failure of one great banking house resulted in a financial panic that swept the country.

521. The Manufacture and Use of Steel. — New processes in the manufacture of steel were used about the middle of the last century. A new method of changing iron into steel was discovered by an Englishman, Henry Bessemer. The Bessemer process was introduced into the United States, which was soon producing large quantities of steel. This greater production of steel was important, as it increased railroad construction. Steel is now used on a large scale, in building "skyscrapers," bridges, naval vessels, and ocean steamships.

522. The New Mining. — The pioneer miners of California worked along the banks of streams, to dig up gold-bearing

soil. To get the gold they washed away the soil with water shaken through a sieve. This was called "placer mining" and was slow and difficult work. Large mining companies



A MODERN "SKY-SCRAPER"

Woolworth Building, New York; the tallest building in the world. This has a steel frame

were then formed and sluices were built through which water flowed in washing away the earth from the particles of gold. Later, shafts were sunk and machinery built for raising the ore from underground. Crushing and stamping machines were used for separating metal from ore. The "new mining" yielded millions of dollars yearly, and greatly increased the prosperity of the western states.

523. Coal Oil and Gas. —

The illuminants once used in this country were the tallow candle and the whale oil lamp. At about the beginning of the war between the states, coal oil (petroleum) was found in western Pennsylvania. Coal oil lamps then took the place of candles for lighting purposes. A great business began in refining oil and shipping it all over the world. Oil was afterwards discovered in Texas, and certain western states. Kerosene is a product of petroleum, the latter in its crude state being used for fuel, and in its most refined form, becoming gasoline. Coal gas, made from coal, was soon afterwards used for illumination. In the larger cities, coal gas

was manufactured and carried in pipes to houses and street lamps.

524. Resources of the United States. — Our country is rich in natural resources, while its great territorial extent, affording different climates and varieties of soil, yields various productions. The vast wheat crops of the northern Mississippi Valley are interchanged, after the processes of manufacture, with the cotton and tobacco of the South, and the



SCENE IN THE OIL DISTRICT OF PENNSYLVANIA IN 1868

corn, potatoes, apples, and other produce of the eastern states. Fruit from California and the South is sold in the markets of other sections. This country-wide transportation of commodities is made possible by our great railroad system. Along our coasts are valuable fisheries, and we have the greatest coal supply in the world.

525. Commerce with Foreign Countries. — For many years, we had been engaged chiefly in agriculture and had depended largely upon foreign countries for farm machinery, tools, and manufactured goods. Since about the middle of the last century, however, there has been a marked increase

in the manufacturing industries of the country, and we no longer depend upon Europe for articles made here. Our country has become so great and prosperous, that we now supply manufactured goods, agricultural products, and other food supplies to foreign nations.

526. Education. — The increase in the effectiveness of popular education, due to the establishment of technical and vocational schools, has been an important factor in national progress. The present tendency of education is along the lines of vocational training, so that the boy and girl may get the kind of education that will enable them to earn a living. Before the Civil War, the South did not have the educational advantages which subsequent conditions made desirable; there were few agricultural and trade schools. Better schools have been since established in that section and also institutions for higher education.

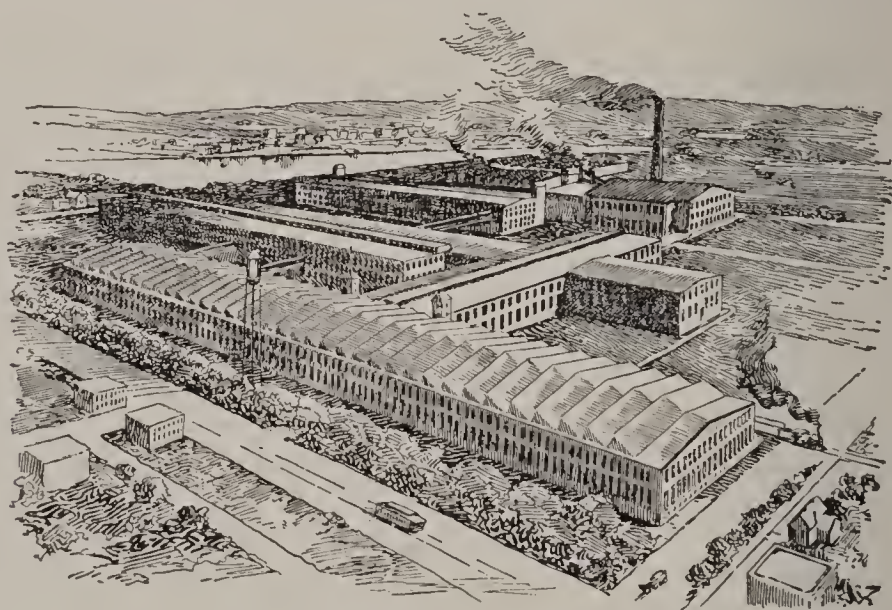
527. Conditions after the Civil War. — The North had escaped the loss of property caused by the movements of large armies. Manufacturing and business had increased, while wages had advanced as the merchant, farmer, and manufacturer received higher prices. Conditions in the South were quite different. Owing to the blockade during the war, necessary supplies could not be obtained. This condition continued for some time afterward. Shoes, clothing, sugar, coffee, and salt were very scarce. Old carpets were made into blankets and curtains were used for cloth and bandages. For writing paper, leaves were torn from old books and envelopes were made from wall paper. The South had been devastated by the march of contending armies. Its plantations had been ruined, its crops destroyed, and its industries stopped by the destruction of railroads. The plantation work had formerly been done by slaves, who had been made free as a

result of the war. The planter, unused to work in the fields, was obliged to cultivate his crops, to be shared with his former slaves. The price that he received for his produce fell, while he was obliged to pay more for farm implements and other necessary articles. The large plantations were then divided into small farms. Within five years from the close of the war, larger and better crops were produced from these small farms than from the large plantations.

528. The Freedmen's Bureau. — When the negroes had become free, they were unfit to improve the advantages that freedom brought. The more intelligent saw that, although free, they were also idle, and knew that idleness would not bring food, shelter, and clothing. To relieve this condition and to protect the negro, the Freedmen's Bureau was established by Congress. This largely failed of its purpose, because the distribution of supplies led many of the freedmen to believe that they would be supported, without working, by the Federal Government.

529. The New South. — Since the close of the war between the states, there has been in the South a great increase in industry and manufacturing, which has led to marked growth of certain sections. Alabama has important and growing commercial centers owing to its coal and iron industries. Texas, covering thousands of square miles of the most fertile and best grazing land in the United States, produces great quantities of beef and cotton. Oil fields have been discovered in this state, and many oil wells are in successful operation. Increased production of lumber, coal, iron, steel, and cotton, and the growth of the fruit industry, required more and better methods of transportation. Railroads were built throughout the South, affording increased facilities for carrying products to many markets. The growth of manufacturing, industrial,

and commercial enterprises brought emigrants from Europe, as well as laborers from the North. The trade of the "New South" found a western market, through the building of the Southern Pacific Railroad from New Orleans to San Francisco. Commerce between other ports and New Orleans was made possible for large seagoing vessels by deepening the channels at the mouth of the Mississippi River. This was done by jetties, constructed by James B. Eads, by which



A SOUTHERN COTTON MILL

the channels at the mouth of the river were narrowed and deepened. This increased the volume of water and the strength of the current, and prevented mud from accumulating at the mouth of the river.

530. Southern Expositions. — The development of the South has been shown by expositions which have been occasionally held for that purpose. The Centennial Cotton Exposition in New Orleans, in 1884, commemorated the first export of cotton from Charleston, S. C., in 1784. In 1895, the International Exposition at Atlanta showed the advance of the South in industry. It was particularly notable in

exhibiting the progress made in industrial education by the negro race. Two years later, the Centennial Exposition at Nashville was held to celebrate the admission of Tennessee into the Union.



COURT OF HONOR, COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION

In 1907, the Jamestown Fair, in which every southern state was represented, was held at Norfolk, Va., to mark the tercentenary of the founding of Jamestown. It demonstrated the growth and progress of the South, for the preceding thirty years.

531. Northern Expositions; the Centennial Exposition. — In 1876, the centennial of the independence of our country was celebrated at Philadelphia. This exhibition was held in magnificent buildings, and for six months was visited by millions of people. The World's Columbian Exposition, in honor of the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America, was held in Chicago in 1893. It showed the vast extent of our national resources in industrial, agricultural, and inventional development.

The Pan-American Exposition, open to all people on the American continent, was held at Buffalo in 1901. The mechanical and electrical displays were marvelous, and our national progress was extensively shown.

532. Western Expositions.—In 1898, the Trans-Mississippi Exposition was held in Omaha, to show the growth of the states west of the Mississippi River. It exhibited mineral and agricultural products and the results of industrial growth. The Louisiana Purchase Exposition was held in St. Louis in 1903. One of its most important features was the exhibition of new inventions and recent scientific discoveries.

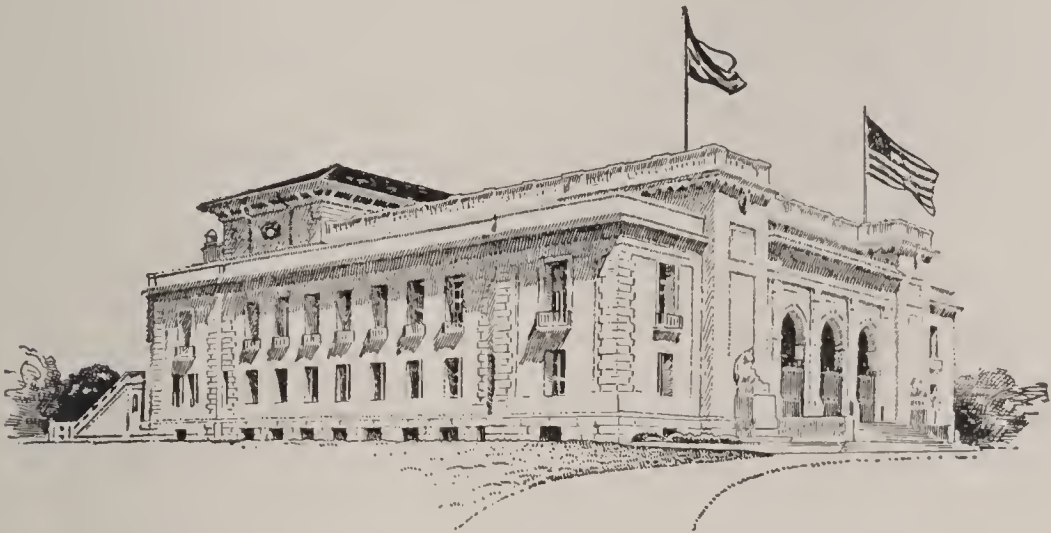
533. The Alaskan Seal Fisheries.—As this country had purchased Alaska in 1867, our government claimed the exclusive right to the seals on the coast of Bering Sea. The question of respective rights of American and Canadian fishermen had long been discussed by representatives of our government and Great Britain. In 1886, when American vessels cruising in these waters overhauled Canadian fishing boats and seized their cargoes of furs, the situation became somewhat serious. In 1893, the matter was settled by a commission appointed by each country to arbitrate the dispute. It was decided that English or Canadian vessels might take seals outside the three-mile limit. The commission, however, framed careful regulations to prevent useless and wasteful slaughter of seals, which was what this government chiefly desired.

534. The Pan-American Congress.—In 1889, representatives from seventeen South and Central American republics met in Washington and joined with our government in forming the Pan-American Congress. Better ways of conducting business and improved methods of transportation and communication were discussed. Recommendations were also made that all disputes among the countries represented should be settled by arbitration.

535. The Hague Peace Tribunal.—Leading nations of the world sent representatives to a peace conference held at The Hague in 1899. Nearly twice as many met at the same

place in 1907, to discuss plans for settling disputes between countries, by arbitration. Great expense in money and loss of life might be avoided if national disputes were settled in this way.

536. Troubles with Italy and Chile. — Soon after the formation of the Pan-American Congress, the value of arbi-



THE PAN-AMERICAN BUILDING AT WASHINGTON

tration was shown in settling troubles between our government and that of Italy and of Chile. In New Orleans, in 1890, some Italians, not citizens of this country, whom a jury had failed to convict of the murder of the chief of police of that city, were lynched. Serious complications might have arisen if the matter had not been settled by arbitration. A year later, in Valparaiso, Chile, American marines were attacked by a mob which killed two and wounded others. This case was also arbitrated, and Chile paid substantial damages.

537. The Hawaiian Revolution. — In 1893, revolutionists in the Hawaiian Islands sent representatives to Washington to effect annexation to the United States. During the last days of the Harrison administration, a treaty was formulated

and sent to the Senate for confirmation. Before the Senate had taken action, President Harrison's term of office had expired. Early in President Cleveland's second administration, the treaty was withdrawn from the Senate, and a representative of this government was sent to Hawaii. He recommended that Liliuokalani, the former queen, be restored to the throne. No action was, however, taken by our government until two years later, when in 1898 Hawaii was annexed as a territory of the United States.

538. Porto Rico. — The inhabitants of Porto Rico had suffered loss of trade owing to the Spanish-American War. In addition to this, a year after the close of that war, property in Porto Rico to the value of twenty millions of dollars was destroyed by a tornado. Our government raised between two and three millions of dollars for the Porto Ricans, and shipped to them a large quantity of food. The money raised had been provided from the import duties formerly levied by our government on goods from Porto Rico. In 1900, Congress passed a law granting territorial government under which the people of that island elect their own legislature, while their governor is appointed by the President of the United States.

SUMMARY

1. Growth and development of the country.
2. The Homestead Law.
3. Trouble with the Indians.
4. Increase in manufactures.
5. The early railroads.
6. Financial Panic of 1873.
7. Education.
8. The Freedmen's Bureau. The New South.
9. Expositions.
10. The Alaskan seal fisheries.
11. The Pan-American Congress.

12. The Hague Peace Tribunal.
13. Italy and Chile.
14. Porto Rico.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. How did the territory in the Louisiana Purchase compare in size with the thirteen original colonies?
2. What states and early territories were part of this purchase?
3. What territory was purchased in 1819?
4. What was the increase in population and territory during the fifty years from the close of the Revolutionary War?
5. In 1860, what was the population and territorial extent of this country?
6. What was provided by the Homestead Law of 1862?
7. What Indian troubles occurred in 1873 and 1876?
8. What were some early methods of manufacture and work?
9. When were railroads built as far west as Chicago and St. Louis?
10. What caused the financial panic of 1873?
11. What kind of schools made education a very important factor in national progress?
12. What was the Freedmen's Bureau? Was it a success?
13. What expositions were held in the United States? Why?
14. What was determined by the arbitration in the matter of the Alaskan seal fisheries?
15. When and why was the Pan-American Congress formed?
16. What was the purpose of the Hague Peace Tribunal?
17. What trouble in Italy and Chile was settled by arbitration?
18. When did Porto Rico become United States territory? How did our government help that island?

CHAPTER XIX

CHANGES IN GOVERNMENT; BUSINESS; LABOR TROUBLES

539. The Presidential Succession Act. — President Garfield died several months before Congress met. At that time, Vice-President Arthur was very ill, and if he had died some confusion might have arisen as to who should become President. To remedy this difficulty, the Presidential Succession Act was passed in 1886, providing for the selection in turn, beginning with the Secretary of State, of members of the Cabinet, who were to assume the Presidency in case of death, or disability, of both the President and the Vice-President.

540. The Interstate Commerce Commission. — Population had grown rapidly in the new states. The freight business of the railroads had increased very much, and many of them were combined under one management. The railroads were not always fair to shippers in the matter of freight charges. "Rebates," or a return of a portion of the freight rates, were made to a few favored shippers. Hence, upon some, the burden of business competition was greatly increased, while lessened for others. Complaint of this unfair practice became so general that, in 1887, Congress passed the Interstate Commerce Act. The purpose of this law was to make uniform freight and passenger charges in railroad traffic between different states. A commission of seven members, called the Interstate Commerce Commission, was chosen to see that the provisions of this law were carried into effect.

541. Ballot Reform Laws. — Under the old method of conducting elections, voters formed in lines and proceeded in turn to the ballot boxes. There was thus no opportunity for secrecy in performing an important duty of citizenship, and sometimes, owing to free access to the voters, votes were bought and sold. Ballot Reform laws which greatly decreased this evil were passed in a large number of states. Their object was to provide an opportunity for voting, in secret, in booths provided for that purpose.

542. Direct Primaries. — In the Direct Primary system, selection of candidates for elective office is made by the voters themselves. Nominations for office made at conventions were too often dictated by political leaders who controlled the delegates. This elective reform was begun as early as 1890. Laws for the nomination of candidates under the Direct Primary system have been passed in more than thirty-eight states.

543. Changes in Municipal Government. — Municipal government has frequently been ineffective through the inefficiency or dishonesty of officials. For better administration, many cities have adopted the "commission" form of government. The "commission" consists of a board composed of persons selected for their ability in managing municipal affairs.

544. The Initiative and Referendum. — Another change in the method of enacting laws adopted first in some of the western states, is known as the Initiative and Referendum. The Initiative provides that a state legislature must consider any law which a sufficiently large number of voters propose. If the intended law is not enacted by the legislature, it may be submitted to the voters at a subsequent election. Under the Referendum, laws which a legislature has passed must,

if a certain number of voters demand, be referred to the voters for approval or rejection.

545. The Recall. — By 1913, a law giving the people control of officials had been adopted in eight western states. It is called the Recall and provides that on petition of a certain number of citizens, the voters may decide at a subsequent election, whether the term of office of an official shall terminate sooner than the expiration of the period for which he had been elected.

546. Business Corporations; Trusts. — The building of railroads has greatly increased the business of the country. This has resulted in intense competition, which companies engaged in the same business sought to lessen by merging their interests in one corporation. This merger of interests has created what has been commonly called a "trust." The railroads were the first to adopt this procedure. In place of many small railroads a few large companies were formed to control the business of transportation. Many believed that the "trusts" controlled prices, limited production, destroyed competition, and created monopoly. The organizers of these business combinations claimed that they brought about economy of production and cheaper prices. As large individual fortunes were made in this way, many thought that combinations of capital thus formed for carrying on business were not wholly beneficial.

The Supreme Court of the United States, in recent decisions, has determined that in the conduct of business certain combinations of capital, known as "trusts," are illegal.

547. Labor Unions and Strikes. — As great companies have been formed to carry on "big business," larger numbers of skilled and unskilled laborers have been employed. Workmen have formed unions for protecting their interests and for

the determination of such questions as rates of wages and hours of work. The national labor organization is the American Federation of Labor. Many labor disputes have been settled by arbitration, but when this has failed, strikes have occurred which have caused idleness, disorder, and loss of property and life.

548. A Great Railroad Strike. — One of the first great railroad strikes occurred in 1877, through the decreased earnings of the railroads, because of the financial panic of 1873. The wages of railroad employees were lowered, and trainmen on the Pennsylvania and other railroads refused to work. The strike spread from the East to St. Louis, Chicago, and other cities. It resulted in the destruction of millions of dollars worth of property.

549. The Haymarket Riots in Chicago. — During a strike in Chicago in 1886, thousands of laborers were thrown out of employment. At Haymarket Square, in that city, a speaker advised the exercise of force. He was arrested, and in the confusion that followed several persons were killed by a dynamite bomb. Some of the leaders of the mob were hanged, while others were imprisoned.

550. Other Labor Troubles. — A strike occurred in 1892, owing to the lowering of wages in the iron mills of Homestead, Pennsylvania. Non-union laborers who took the places of the strikers were attacked and killed. To end this strike, it became necessary to call out the state troops. In 1902 the coal miners struck for higher wages. The mine owners refused to arbitrate the dispute. Finally a commission appointed by President Roosevelt ended the strike by suggesting remedies which were adopted.

551. The Pullman Car Company Strike. — In 1894, the Pullman Car Company of Chicago reduced wages, and about

three thousand of their workmen struck. The strike spread to other railroad workers and the situation became very serious. The trouble lasted for about three weeks and was terminated by military intervention.

552. The Eighteenth Amendment to the Constitution. — In 1918, Congress proposed an amendment to the Federal Constitution enforcing national prohibition. This amendment was ratified by the requisite number of state legislatures and went into full effect in January, 1920.

553. The Nineteenth Amendment to the Constitution. — In 1919, Congress passed a resolution proposing an amendment to the Constitution granting to women the right to vote upon the same conditions as men. This amendment was ratified by the necessary number of state legislatures and became part of the Constitution in 1921.

The right to vote is the first step in woman's struggle for complete civil rights.

SUMMARY

1. Presidential Succession Act.
2. The Interstate Commerce Commission.
3. The Initiative and Referendum.
4. The Eighteenth Amendment.
5. The proposed Nineteenth Amendment.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. Why was the Presidential Succession Act made a law?
2. What was the Interstate Commerce Commission?
3. Why were Ballot Reform laws enacted?
4. What is meant by the Initiative and Referendum? The Recall?
5. How is the "trust" formed?
6. What is the object of labor unions?
7. What is meant by a "strike"? Name some strikes that have occurred.
8. For what did the Eighteenth Amendment provide?
9. What is the purpose of the proposed Nineteenth Amendment?

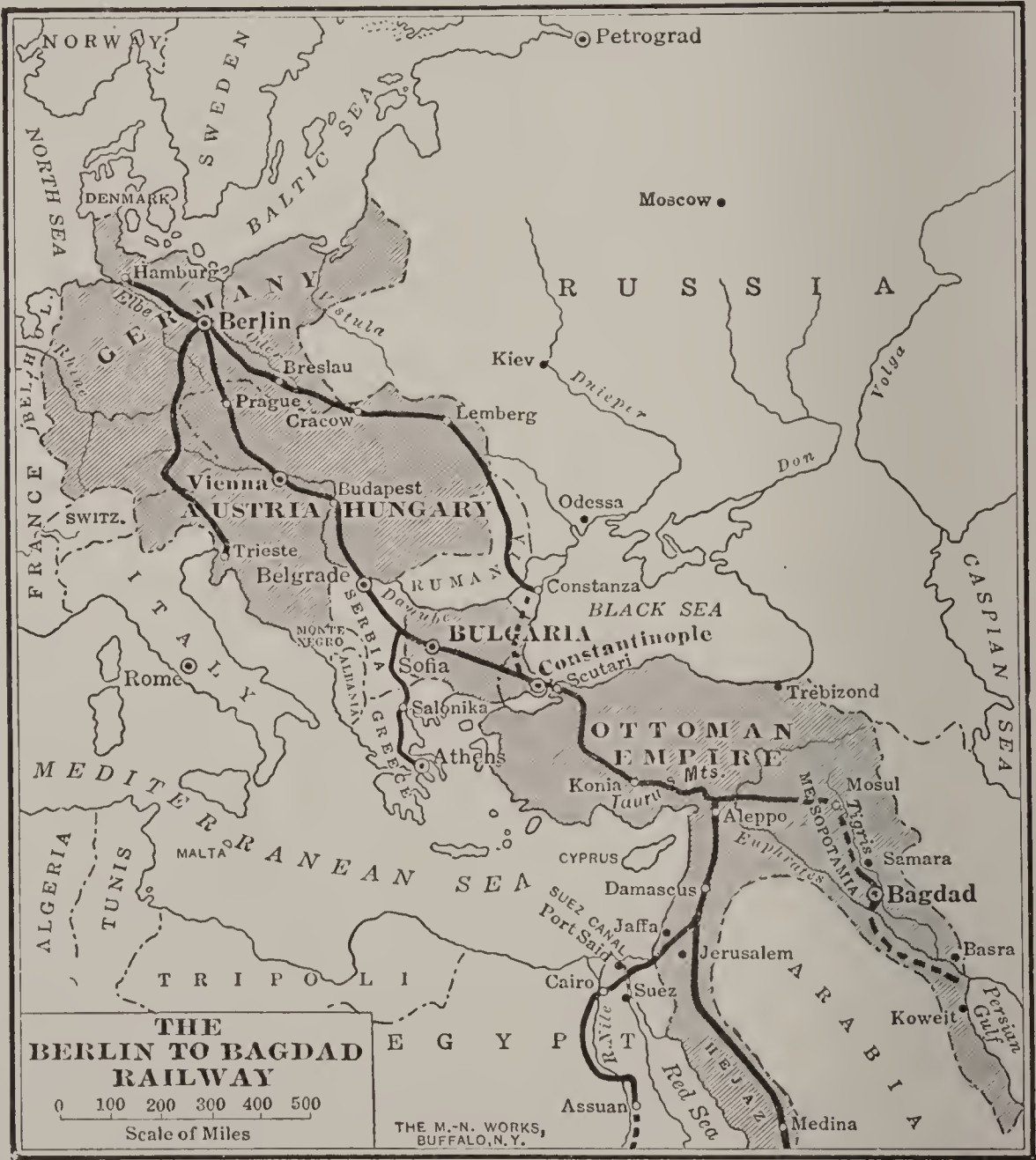
CHAPTER XX

THE WORLD WAR

554. The German Scheme of World Control. — Since the time of Napoleon, there had been no very extensive warfare in Europe until the Franco-Prussian War in 1870. In this war, France was conquered. At its close, the German Empire was founded. By the terms of the peace settlement, France was obliged to cede her provinces of Alsace and Lorraine to Germany, and to pay an indemnity of one billion dollars. The people of Alsace and Lorraine, who were mostly of French birth, long suffered German oppression. France also deeply resented the loss of her provinces. From the close of the Franco-Prussian War to the commencement of the World War, in 1914, Germany had employed all her energies and resources in preparation for further war in an attempt at world domination.

555. German "Kultur." — In this long period of preparation, there grew a trend of thought and development of character among the German people, which they expressed by the word *Kultur*. This taught that war is essential to all national growth. German writers and speakers have held that brutality and cruelty were both necessary and justifiable as means of inspiring fear through "frightfulness." The German people became imbued with the idea that "might makes right," and that the rights of weaker nations, even though secured by treaty, need not be respected.

556. The Military Ambitions of Germany. — In anticipation of world conquest, Germany had drilled and supported an immense army and increased her navy. The development



of military and naval power was the chief aim of the German government. Under the laws of the German Empire, the power to declare war rested with the Kaiser. The German people, through “military advisers and monarchical auto-

crats," were led to believe that their existence as a nation, and their chance to "secure a place in the sun," depended solely upon the strength and efficiency of their armed forces. They were taught to await "the day," when through military preparedness they might secure world-wide dominion.

557. The Middle-Europe Plan. — A part of the plan of the German military leaders was the extension of their control from Berlin to the Persian Gulf. This design was made possible, since Germany, long friendly with Turkey, had secured from the latter government the right to build a railroad from Constantinople to Bagdad. To connect with this railroad, it would be necessary to secure territory and right of way through the countries of the Balkan peninsula. Most of the Balkan states had thrown off the oppression of Turkish rule, Serbia being the first to secure independence.

558. Austria and the Balkan Peninsula. — Austro-Hungary, an ally of Germany, also desired to gain control of the Balkan states, to get access to the ports of the Ægean Sea. In 1908 Austro-Hungary had annexed Bosnia, west of Serbia. This was displeasing to Serbia, because a large portion of the inhabitants of Bosnia were of Serbian birth. Independent Serbia was determined also to avoid Austrian control, while Austria sought a pretext for war. If the Middle-Europe plan were carried out, the Balkan states and Asia Minor would be controlled by Austria and Germany. This was to be the first step by Germany toward curbing the power of England in Egypt and India. Little Serbia, however, stood in the way of the plans of Germany and Austro-Hungary.

559. The Pretext for War. — Austria's chance to carry out her designs against Serbia came in July, 1914. The Austrian crown prince, Francis Ferdinand, and his wife had been assassinated while on a visit in Bosnia. The murderers were

Austrian subjects, of Serbian birth. Austria claimed that Serbia was, therefore, responsible for the crime. A secret inquiry was made by the Austrian court, and a peremptory note was sent to the Serbian government demanding unconditional acceptance of its terms within forty-eight hours.



THE INTERIOR OF THE LIBRARY AT LOUVAIN AFTER THE GERMAN TROOPS HAD PASSED

Serbia agreed to comply with all the Austrian demands except two, and suggested a reference to the Hague Tribunal, or to the judgment of other European governments.

560. The War Begins. — Notwithstanding the efforts of the countries comprising the Triple Entente (England, Russia, and France) to arrange a settlement, Austria declared war on Serbia, July 28, 1914. Germany then declared war upon Russia because she had begun to mobilize her forces, and upon France, August 1, 1914.

561. German Plan of Campaign. — Russia, to help Serbia, to whom she was bound by ties of religion and race, began to

move her armies to the western frontier. Germany saw that she must strike a decisive blow before Russia was ready to enter the war. The quickest and easiest way of moving troops from Germany to France was through Belgium. The German commanders determined to enter France by this route, in an attempt to take Paris before England might send an army across the Channel.

562. Invasion of Belgium.—Belgium was protected from invasion by treaty, to which Germany was a party. This, however, did not prevent the advance of the Huns, who spoke of the treaty as a “mere scrap of paper.” The Germans, in the face of stubborn and heroic resistance by the Belgians, succeeded in reaching French territory. In Belgium the Germans were guilty of wanton destruction of life and property. Notable as an act of vandalism was the sacking of Louvain and the destruction of its cathedral and priceless library. Upon the invasion of Belgium, England declared war upon Germany, August 1, 1914.

563. The First Battle of the Marne.—The English government had at once sent all available troops to the assistance of the French. The French and English armies, however, were greatly outnumbered by the



MARSHAL JOFFRE

German forces, who finally reached and crossed the Marne River, at a point about twenty miles east of Paris. Here,

in September, was fought the first battle of the Marne in which the German line was broken and her army routed and driven back. The first battle of the Marne was one of the decisive battles of the world, and the German defeat was largely due to the superb generalship of the French commander, Marshal Joffre.

564. Failure of the German Plan of Campaign. — Germany had failed in her attempt to take Paris. The delay caused by the little Belgian army was far-reaching in results, and probably “saved the world for democracy.” The Germans had also been unsuccessful in their attempt to capture the channel ports of Calais and Dunkirk. One hundred thousand soldiers and a great quantity of supplies had by this time been sent from England to the French army in Flanders.

565. Movements of the Russian Army. — The Russian army had mobilized in Russian Poland. The countries to the north and south were, respectively, East Prussia and Galicia. Before the Russians could advance upon Berlin the German forces in these two provinces must be overcome. This was necessary to prevent a rear attack which might result in cutting off the Russian army from its base of supplies. The Russians advanced into East Prussia, where, at the battle of Tannenberg, they were defeated with disastrous loss during the last days of August, 1914. The Russian campaign against Galicia was successful, and by December, 1914, the greater part of that province had been overcome. Before the close of the year, the Germans and Austrians, however, had invaded Poland and threatened Warsaw. The most important thing accomplished by the Russian armies was the weakening of the German western front, through the withdrawal of troops from that locality.

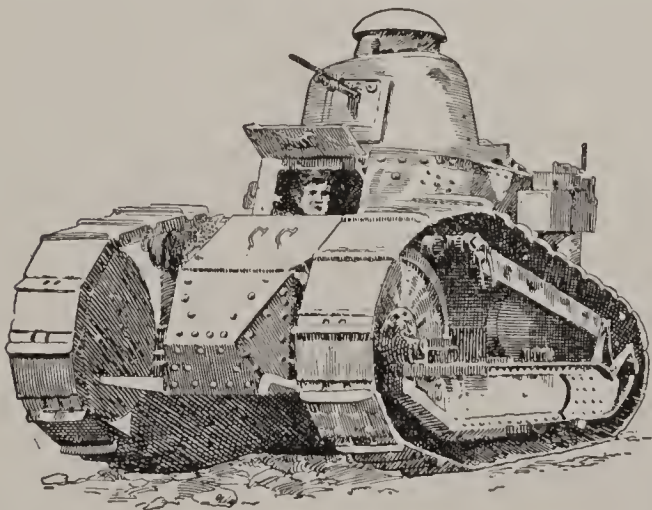
566. Serbia, Italy, Japan, and Turkey. — Serbia made a gallant resistance to the Austrian forces sent against her, who were twice defeated and driven out of the country. Belgrade was taken, but was recaptured by the Serbians. It was not until the following year (1915) that the Serbians were conquered by an Austrian army aided by Bulgaria, which in 1915 had joined the Central Powers. A few months after the war had begun, Turkey, neutral at first, also became an ally of Austria and Germany. Italy joined the allied powers in May, 1915. The Central Powers were now Germany, Austria, Bulgaria, and Turkey. Japan allied herself with England, France, and Russia soon after the war began. She took no part in the fighting in Western Europe, but guarded the interests of the Allies on the Pacific Coast.

567. German Loss of Territory. — Germany, early in the war, lost all her Pacific Island possessions, and within three years, all of her African colonies. Activities in southwest Africa against the German colonies were conducted by the Boers, under Generals Smuts and Botha. In 1917 German East Africa was conquered by combined English and Belgian forces.

568. The German and British Navies. — Soon after the beginning of the war, the British and French cleared the sea of all German war vessels except the submarines. The German navy was bottled up in the Kiel Canal and in the waters near the island of Heligoland. English war vessels prevented food, supplies, and munitions sent from neutral countries from being carried to Germany. The British navy at one time made a practice of holding up our vessels, and when food that had been shipped was seized, our government protested against this, as being a violation of the rights of neutrals. As the war progressed, Germany complained that England

was trying to starve her civilian population. The reply of the English government was to the effect that it could not be distinguished whether food, sent to Germany by neutral countries, was intended for non-combatants, or for the German army. England therefore continued to seize all food sent to neutral countries that she considered in excess of that needed for their own consumption. Germany wished to stop this interference by England with the trade of neutral countries, and if possible to prevent munitions from being carried to English ports. Accordingly, in 1915, the German government declared that the waters surrounding the British Islands were in the "war zone." She further said that her submarines would sink without warning any merchant vessels of belligerent nations found in those waters, and warned neutral vessels that they might be sunk by mistake if found there.

569. New Methods of Warfare. — Recent inventions have changed the ways of fighting both on sea and land. Ger-



AN AMERICAN "WHIPPET" TANK

many, as the war went on, used the submarine in ruthless fashion, attacking unarmed ships without warning and sending them to the bottom. For use on land, the English converted motor cars into large armored "tanks," having rapid-fire guns, and being driven by revolving metallic

belts which, rolling along the ground, drove the tanks ahead. These "caterpillar" tanks were heavy and powerful, able to go over rough ground and to smash all obstacles. A lighter

tank, or "whippet," was also used for moving more quickly and clearing the way toward the enemies' line when an attack was to be made. The airplane, a most valuable machine in warfare, could be driven at great speed and used for fighting, scouting, or bombing purposes.

570. Submarine Warfare; the "Lusitania." —The German submarines by destroying merchant vessels without warning acted in violation of international law. Ships were blown up without opportunity being given to remove passengers. More than a thousand lives, including one hundred fourteen Americans, were lost by the sinking of the *Lusitania* by a German submarine, in May, 1915. The following year the *Sussex* was blown up in the English Channel, and more American lives were lost. The United States government, in a series of diplomatic notes addressed to Germany, protested against this kind of warfare. Germany was notified that she would be held to strict accountability for loss of life or injury done to citizens of the United States. After the blowing up of the *Sussex*, the German government promised to sink no more vessels without warning. This promise was not kept, however, and in January, 1917, Germany announced that she would continue her submarine attacks and would sink, without warning and wherever found, merchant ships whether neutral or belligerent. To her faithlessness, Germany added insult in agreeing to allow our government to send one ship weekly to England. This ship was to be painted in a prescribed manner, so that the German submarine commanders might recognize it.

SUMMARY

1. The World War : its underlying causes.
2. The Middle-Europe plan.
3. Austria and the Balkan Peninsula.
4. The pretext for war.
5. German plan of campaign.
6. Invasion of Belgium.
7. First battle of the Marne.
8. Movements of the Russian armies.
9. Progress of the war in Serbia.
10. Italy joins the Allies.
11. German loss of territory.
12. The German and British navies.
13. New methods of warfare.
14. The sinking of the *Lusitania*.
15. Germany's submarine warfare.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. What did German *Kultur* teach?
2. What was the Middle-Europe plan?
3. Why was the possession of the Balkan states important to Germany and Austria?
4. What was the pretext of the declaration of war by Austria on Serbia?
5. What was the German plan of campaign?
6. Where were the movements of the Russian army directed in 1914?
7. What two countries conquered Serbia?
8. Where was the German navy bottled up?
9. What course did English war vessels pursue which was considered by this country as a violation of the rights of neutrals?
10. What complaint did Germany make with regard to the English navy? How did Germany retaliate?
11. What were some of the new methods of warfare?
12. Tell about the *Lusitania* and *Sussex*.
13. What policy with regard to submarine attacks did Germany assume in January, 1917?

CHAPTER XXI

THE UNITED STATES ENTERS THE WAR

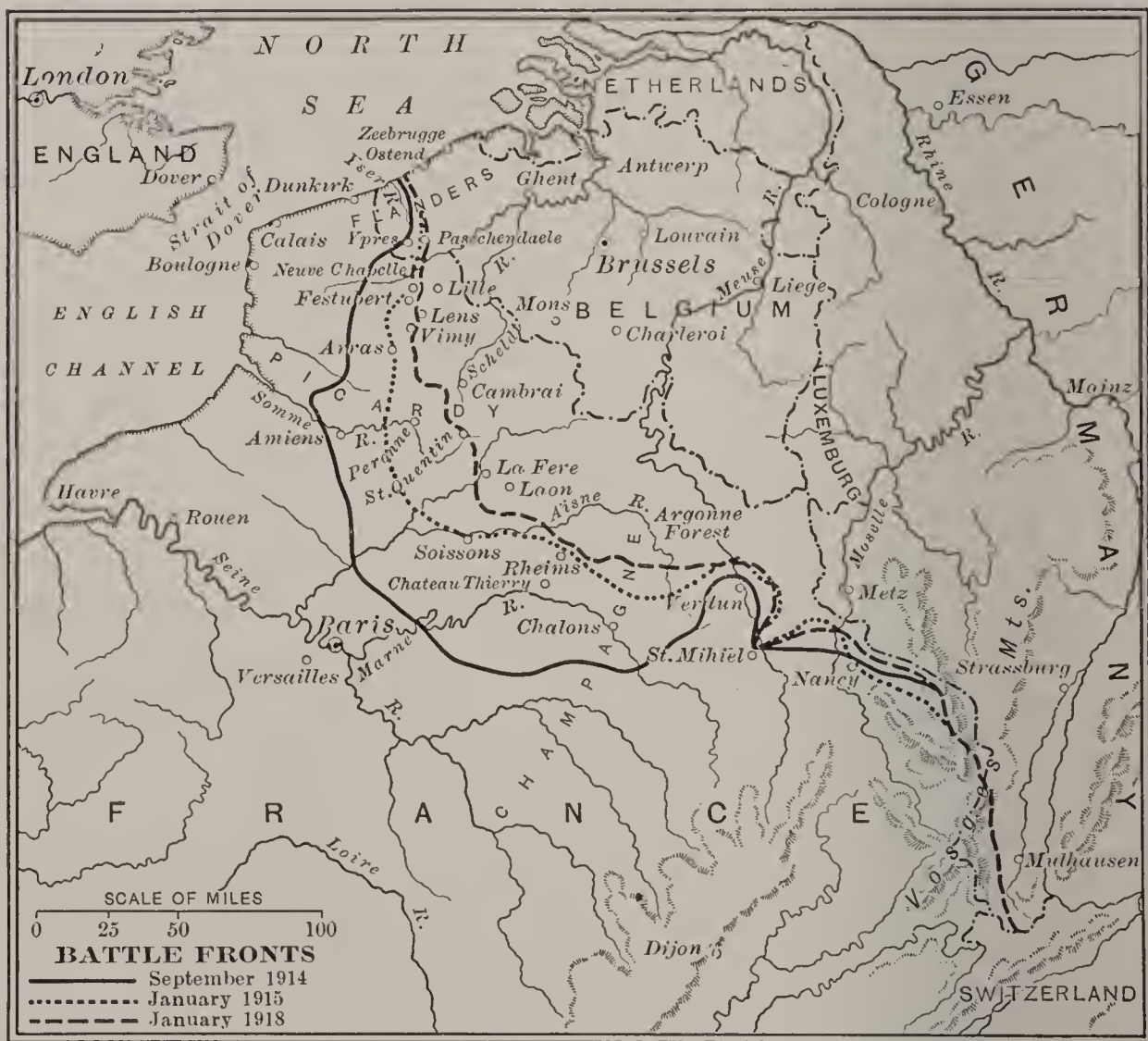
571. Declaration of Congress. — Early in 1917, President Wilson laid before Congress the matter of Germany's submarine attacks on neutral ships. In his address, he said: "Vessels of every kind, whatever their flag, their character, their cargo, their destination, their errand, have been ruthlessly sent to the bottom without warning, and without thought of help or mercy for those on board, the vessels of friendly neutrals along with those of belligerents. Even hospital ships and ships carrying relief to the sorely bereaved and stricken people of Belgium, though the latter were provided with safe conduct through the prescribed areas, by the German government itself, and were distinguished by unmistakable marks of identity, have been sunk with the same reckless lack of compassion, or of principle."

Therefore, on April 6, 1917, Congress declared that a state of war existed between this country and Germany, because of the unlawful acts of the German government. Later, our government declared war against Austria.

572. Revolution in Russia. — Through want of supplies and munitions, the Russian armies had been disorganized and defeated. This was caused by German intrigue and treachery in the Russian court. The condition of Russia became desperate on account of the struggle of different factions for control. A revolution began in March, 1917, and a few months later Czar Nicholas abdicated. A year afterward, at

Brest-Litovsk, a town in Russian Poland, the Russians were forced to make a separate and most unjust treaty with Germany.

573. Trench Warfare. — After the first battle of the Marne the Germans retreated to Belgium and northern France and



began a system of trench warfare. These trenches, deeply dug, extended for miles across the country and gave protection from artillery fire. The British and French also “dug in” until the country was covered with trenches. In different places they were roofed over, forming “dugouts,” in which the soldiers lived. The open ground between the trenches of

the opposing forces was called "No Man's Land," and was from a few yards to a mile or more wide. Heavy barbed wire entanglements were built in front of the trenches. When an attack was to be made, the soldiers went "over the top," as climbing out of the trenches was called. To prevent a counter-attack a "barrage," or heavy shell fire, was so directed that it dropped explosives just ahead of the line of advancing troops. Before an attack, poisonous gas was thrown out, the fumes of which caused instant death, unless the soldiers were protected by gas masks.

574. The Need of Ships. — When the United States entered the war, ships for carrying soldiers and munitions were needed at once. The cry was for "more ships." As President Wilson said, we must have a "bridge of ships." The German submarines had been destroying shipping faster than boats could be built. Our shipyards began to build ships very rapidly. Six months from the time this country entered the war, fifty thousand American soldiers were being sent to France monthly. As the war progressed one hundred fifty thousand men were sent abroad each month, until more than two million Americans were under arms.

575. Increased Industry. — Although the task was great, in moving this vast force across the Atlantic, in equipping and training them, the United States gave to the whole world an object lesson in speed and effectiveness. This undertaking demanded the greatest activity in industry and manufacturing.

576. Government Control of Railroads; the Coal Supply. — Great supplies of clothing, shoes, food, and munitions were needed at the front. In an effort to supply these things as promptly as possible, the government took control of the railroads of the country, and afterward assumed direction of

the telephone and telegraph systems. To carry out government control, a railroad administrator was appointed. It became also necessary to see that the available coal supply was fairly distributed. The winter of 1917-1918 had been very severe and this, with the demands which war made, caused our coal supply to become insufficient and expensive. To prevent the hoarding of coal, dwellings were inspected at this critical time, to discover excessive domestic supplies. Stores and factories were closed on certain days to save coal. For the same reason the amount of electric lighting was curtailed.

577. The Food Problem. — Before the United States entered the war, we had been shipping a great amount of food to France and England. Now that our soldiers were going across the Atlantic in increasing numbers, more food became necessary, and in addition we were asked to send food to our allies. The British and French had been fighting for three years. France, as the Germans expressed it, had been "bled white." So many men were engaged in the war that very few were left to till the fields of Europe, and no large crops were grown. To meet this enormous demand for food, and to see that fair distribution of it should be made, our government appointed a food administrator. The people were asked to eat no meat on certain days. On others, they were to do without wheat. The amount of flour or sugar that could be bought at one time was limited. The farmers worked to increase their crops, while the proper selection of food and economy in its use became the watchword of every household.

578. The Military Training Camps. — Our government at once began the arduous task of turning civilians into soldiers. Within a very few weeks after the United States entered the

war, training camps were established throughout the country, where young men were drilled and prepared for the various branches of the service. Some of these were used for training officers, while others were schools for aviation and artillery practice. Attention was given also to the social and physical welfare of the men at these camps. Recreation was provided for in the maintenance of athletic fields. There were also



A VIEW OF AN AMERICAN TRAINING CAMP

libraries, hospitals, canteens, and buildings where plays or other forms of entertainment might be enjoyed. The canteens, or "huts," were conducted by the Red Cross, the Knights of Columbus, the Young Men's Christian Association, and other organizations.

579. The Selective Draft; Liberty Bonds. — Soldiers who did not enlist were obtained by the government through the selective draft, from men between eighteen and forty-five years of age. Money to carry on the war was raised by the people through the purchase of Liberty Loan bonds. There were five such bond sales and billions of dollars were raised in this way. Thrift stamps and war savings stamps were also sold in great quantities.

580. General Pershing in Command of the American Forces. — Our preparations for war had been going on for about two months, when General John J. Pershing was chosen



JOHN J. PERSHING

for the command of the American army. He went to France in June, 1917, to prepare for the arrival of American troops. It was necessary to build camps and to enlarge the terminal facilities at various French ports, so that supplies might be safely stored. Additional cars and locomotives were needed for use on the French railways. These were shipped in parts and afterwards reassembled. The American soldiers began to arrive on French soil soon afterward. They then began

another course of training, and when fall came, were ready to join the seasoned French and British soldiers at the front.

581. How the Women Helped. — The work done by women in the war was admirable. Nothing was too difficult for them, whether employed as nurses, factory workers, or ambulance drivers. In knitting garments, in making bandages, in selling Liberty bonds, and in raising money for the Red Cross, their patriotic and unstinted work was of the greatest value. Overseas, they gave cheer and comfort to thousands of sick, wounded, and dying boys at the front. By their quiet courage, their untiring labor, often in most dangerous and trying situations, they showed the highest type of steadfast patriotism.

582. The Great German Drive. — In March, 1918, the Germans, reënforced by troops from the eastern front, broke through the French and British lines near St. Quentin in Picardy. They outnumbered the allied troops and forced their way in a westerly drive of nearly forty miles, to the vicinity of the important railroad junction at Amiens. Here they were checked by the timely arrival of fresh French and British troops. The capture of Amiens by the Germans would have proved disastrous, as it would have prevented supplies from Paris and the channel ports from reaching the allied troops at the front.

583. The Supreme Command Given to General Foch. — The Germans in their great drive had been attempting to break through the allied lines at various points. Their object was to gain a decisive victory before more American soldiers should arrive in France. General Pershing saw, at this critical time, that sole power and responsibility should be centered on one commander. He therefore offered to the French General Foch the command of all the American forces. When Italy and Great Britain joined in this plan, General Foch became supreme commander of all the allied troops. At this time, our government was sending overseas about three hundred thousand men each month.



FERDINAND FOCH

584. Further Movement of the German Forces. — After their repulse at Amiens, the German troops tried to over-

whelm the British at the west front in Flanders, in an attempt to take the channel ports. After desperate fighting, they were defeated by the British army. In the important fighting, along the line between Rheims and Soissons, the Germans were stopped by the Americans and French. In this drive, however, the enemy forces bent the Allies' lines toward the south, and gaining control of a large wedge-shaped piece of territory advanced to the Marne River. After three months of hard fighting, the Germans had succeeded in crossing the Marne, and it seemed that the taking of Paris was imminent. The German advance, however, had been made at the cost of about one half million men. The desperate fighting had sapped their strength, and they were held in check at this point.

585. Château-Thierry. — After the German onslaught had been checked, there was severe fighting in the vicinity of the town of Château-Thierry, near the river Marne. There were at this time more than one million American soldiers in France, and they gave most valuable aid to the French forces. When the fiercest fighting was going on at Château-Thierry, American troops and marines were hurried to the battle front to reënforce the French. The fighting at this place occurred on June 5 and 6, 1918, and resulted in the defeat of the Germans, which was due in great measure to the American troops.

586. The Second Battle of the Marne; the Turning Point. — Fresh American troops were continually pouring into France, and by the middle of July, 1918, there were four hundred thousand of our men at the front, with the British and French. It was at this time that the Germans attempted to enlarge the pocket, or "wedge," which extended southerly from Rheims and Soissons. They tried in vain to break through the American and French lines south of the Marne.

The German commanders saw that they were in danger of being surrounded by allied troops who were massing north of them. They were in a trap, and only instant retreat saved them from capture, and by the end of July they had been driven back from the Marne for the second time.



CHÂTEAU-THIERRY IN JULY, 1918

587. Advance of the Allied Armies. — General Foch now began a system of separate attacks, at different places, along the entire battle front. He did not give the enemy time to prepare for counter-attacks: The territory taken by the Germans in Picardy, in March, was regained by the British. By the middle of September, the Germans had been driven from St. Mihiel in northeastern France, where they had long held a strong position which threatened Verdun, a town which had long successfully resisted German attacks. The fighting at St. Mihiel was done entirely by the Americans, as a separate army. This American force captured a large number of prisoners and recovered much territory.

588. The Argonne Forest. — The American army, after its success at St. Mihiel, pushed on, and in the latter part of September entered the region known as the Argonne Forest. This was a densely wooded and uneven country, full of thickets and underbrush, which made progress slow and difficult. The fighting was desperate and bloody, and the Americans suffered severe losses. German machine gun "nests" were thickly planted throughout these woods. At every point where troops might cut a passage through, the German fire was deadly. Of two hundred fifty Americans detailed at one place to capture German machine guns, only eleven returned alive. The American advance was also greatly impeded by barbed wire entanglements. After severe fighting, the Americans succeeded early in October in passing through this forest and breaking through the German lines beyond.

589. The Drive on the Center. — While the American army was engaged on the northeastern front, the British and French forces were steadily pushing the Germans back along the Central front, and by September had driven them to the line which the Allies had held before the German drive began in the early spring. British troops had also driven the Germans back to the old Hindenburg line.

590. The Hindenburg Line Smashed. — At about the time the Americans had succeeded in getting through the Argonne region, General Foch ordered an advance along the center. After several days of terrific fighting, the Hindenburg line was smashed, and the German troops retreated, closely pursued by the British and American forces. Pushing ahead, the allied forces captured Cambrai on October 9, 1918. By the middle of the month, the German army on the western front was in full retreat. The great German drive had been a failure.

591. The Fighting in Other Sections. — The Allies, with the exception of Russia, had been successful on the other fronts. Turkey and Bulgaria, who had, with the aid of Austria and Germany earlier in the war, conquered Roumania, Montenegro, and Serbia, and gained control of the Balkan Peninsula, were now exhausted. The Italians had driven the Austrians back to their own border. The British forces had captured (1917) Jerusalem and Bagdad. Turkey was also ready to cease fighting, as she had lost much territory and the capture of Constantinople was threatened. Austria also was ready for peace, while the Bulgarians had surrendered in the latter part of September, 1918.

592. An Exchange of Diplomatic Notes. — While the allied counter-offensive was being made in France and the German withdrawal of forces had become a retreat, the German government addressed a note to ours, asking for an armistice, in order that terms of peace might be discussed.

In his reply, President Wilson demanded to know with whom he was to negotiate regarding the matter. Germany made an ambiguous and unsatisfactory reply, to which our government answered that no armistice could be arranged unless it were one which would render a return to arms by Germany impossible. It was further stated by President Wilson, that if negotiations were to be made, it must be with duly accredited representatives of the German people, and not with the "military masters or monarchical autocrats" of that country. Otherwise there would be no negotiations, except for surrender.

593. The "Fourteen Points." — President Wilson also stated that peace could be declared only upon certain conditions, known as the "fourteen points." Some of these were: that there should be free navigation of the seas, the surrender

of all occupied territory, and the reduction by Germany of her armed forces. There were to be no secret treaties between nations. A "league of nations" should be formed, to secure the rights of all countries, great or small, with a view to prevent future warfare.

594. The Armistice; the Abdication of the German Emperor. — The terms of the armistice agreed upon by the United States and the nations associated with her in the war were submitted by Marshal Foch to the German commissioners appointed to meet him. They were accepted by the German government, and the war ended November 11, 1918. The armistice provided that the German forces should retire into their own territory and give up their arms. The German navy and submarines were to be surrendered. The allied troops were to be permitted to occupy a strip of land on the easterly bank of the Rhine as far south as Switzerland. The German emperor abdicated and sought refuge in Holland, while the crown prince fled to an island in the Zuyder Zee. Germany soon afterward became a republic.

595. The Conference at Paris. — Although hostilities had ceased with the acceptance by Germany of the terms of the armistice, peace could not be restored by treaty until many questions had been settled. There had been many nations involved in the war, and their claims were so diverse that nearly seven months elapsed before a treaty, interwoven with a "league of nations" covenant, was prepared. To determine upon what terms a treaty of peace could be effected, representatives of the various governments that had been at war met at Paris, in January, 1919. In December, 1918, President Wilson sailed for France on the *George Washington*. The American delegates to the peace conference were Secretary of State Lansing; Henry White of Maryland, ex-Ambas-

sador to France; General Tasker H. Bliss of the United States army; and Colonel Edward M. House of Texas. The delegates representing France and England were Premiers Clemenceau and Lloyd George. The treaty was signed at Versailles, on June 28, 1919. This was the first time a President of the United States had visited a foreign country, during his term of office. Under our Constitution treaties are made by and with the consent of the Senate. President Wilson submitted the treaty with Germany and the League of Nations Covenant to the Senate July 10, 1919, where it met with opposition. The matter was debated for a considerable time. Some of the senators believed that the treaty of peace should be considered apart from the League of Nations Covenant, while others thought that both should be ratified with certain reservations, in order that America's position should be clearly understood by the allied powers. The treaty and covenant of the League of Nations, with reservations appended, were defeated in the Senate as they did not receive the necessary two-thirds vote for ratification. The treaty may again be submitted by the President for ratification.

Without waiting for further action by our government regarding the Treaty and League of Nations Covenant, the peace delegates of England, France, and Italy at the Supreme Council of Paris, agreed that the time for putting the Treaty and Covenant into effect, on the part of the allied governments of Europe, should be December 1, 1919.

Japan had ratified the treaty October 30, 1919.

596. What the War Had Cost. — The cost of the World War in lives, property, and money was tremendous. It is estimated that about seven million men were killed. The loss of property in the battle areas, especially in France and

Belgium, amounted to many billions of dollars. Much of this was caused by wanton destruction perpetrated by the German armies. To this must be added the losses caused by the sinking of ships by German submarines during the first three years of the war. More than eighteen million soldiers were wounded, many so severely as to be permanently disabled. About sixty thousand Americans were killed, and two hundred thousand wounded, during the nineteen months that this government was engaged in the war. France lost more men than any other country in proportion to population. In actual numbers, however, Russia and Germany lost much more. The total cost of the war, in money, was two hundred billion dollars. The cost to the United States was twenty billion dollars, exclusive of about eight billion which our government loaned to the Allies.

597. After the War ; the High Cost of Living. — The high cost of living caused by sending food, clothing, munitions of war, and other necessities to Europe continued after the close of the war. Clothing, shoes, coal, food, and rent doubled in cost. This condition caused great unrest and dissatisfaction among the people of the United States, and charges of “profiteering” and extortion were freely made. The rise in the cost of milk in the great cities, especially, was unprecedented. The cost of this necessity of life was extortionate and called for public investigation.

598. Labor Troubles ; Strikes. — During the year following the signing of the armistice there were many strikes throughout the country. A federal industrial conference between representatives of capital and labor held at Washington endeavored to settle the labor troubles. At this conference unavailing attempts were made to settle the steel strike called by labor union leaders in different sections of the country

(October, 1919). At the beginning of cold weather, another serious situation was caused by the strike of workers in the coal mines, which required federal intervention to settle. There were many strikes by railroad workers, and also by the employees of transportation lines in the large cities.

599. The Boston Police Strike. — The unsuccessful strike of the police force of Boston was that of an entire body of municipal employees, whose sworn duty it was to protect life and property and guard against crime. This strike was denounced by President Wilson and by Governor Coolidge of Massachusetts, who handled the situation without compromise. Underlying it was the issue between control of the police by the labor unions or by constituted government. In this strike the fundamental issue was Americanism. Governor Coolidge spoke as an American when he said, "There is no right to strike against the public safety, by anybody, any time, anywhere."

600. The Death of a Great American. — Colonel Theodore Roosevelt, ex-President of the United States, died January 6, 1919, at his home in Oyster Bay, Long Island. In his death, during the critical after-war period of unrest and national readjustment, the country has suffered a severe loss. Before succeeding to the Presidency, upon the death of President McKinley in September, 1901, Colonel Roosevelt had held municipal, state, and federal offices, which he administered with courage, untiring energy, and great sagacity. He was a many-sided man, always a student, and also naturalist, author, soldier, explorer, and statesman. He emphasized national "preparedness." He believed in unadulterated, unhyphenated Americanism, under one law, one flag, and one language.

601. The American Legion. — At Minneapolis, on the first anniversary of armistice day, the American Legion was

formed, composed of men who wore our uniform and followed our flag in the World War. They adopted a preamble and constitution. Among the declarations made by this body was that the management of our government, and the interpretation of our Constitution, are the duties of American citizens only. Its preamble is as follows:

“For God and country we associate ourselves together for the following purpose: To uphold and defend the Constitution of the United States of America; to maintain law and order; to foster and perpetuate a one hundred per cent Americanism; to preserve the memories and incidents of our association in the great War; to inculcate a sense of individual obligation to the community, state and nation; to make right the master of might; to promote peace and good will on earth; to safeguard and transmit to posterity the principles of justice, freedom, and democracy; to consecrate and sanctify our comradeship by our own devotion to mutual helpfulness.”

It is believed that this organization will be a great force to combat the un-American doctrines advocated by those attempting to destroy our government and its Constitution.

602. A Nation-wide Movement for Americanization.—

One of the greatest problems confronting the American people to-day is the defeat of the attempt by a large element of our foreign population to show disrespect for our laws and contempt for the institutions of our country and its flag. Many of these undesirable citizens are endeavoring to make it appear that this country is no longer the land of the free. There is a widespread movement throughout our land to combat these forces of evil. The schools of the country have devoted much time to the Americanization of its children. Beginning with the anniversary of armistice day in

all the five hundred sixty schools of New York City elaborate pageants were presented. These were intensely patriotic in character and showed the marvelous growth of democratic government since its foundation in America, three hundred years ago.

603. The Bolsheviki. — Upon the revolution in Russia in 1917, the extreme Socialists, later known as the Bolsheviki, gained control of the government. The leaders in this movement were Trotsky and Lenine. Their radical doctrines spread in some of the countries of Europe and appeared in the United States. Our government is now trying a new remedy to prevent the spread of extreme radical and anarchistic doctrines by those who have come to this country as emigrants and seek to destroy our government. This remedy is the deportation of these “undesirables,” the first of whom, 249 in number, were placed upon the army transport *Buford* and shipped to a foreign port.

604. Distinguished Visitors from England and Belgium. — Notable among distinguished visitors to this country in the latter part of 1919 was Cardinal Mercier of Belgium, who had taken a firm stand against German demands during the devastation of his country by the Huns. The visit of this eminent churchman made a marked impression and he received degrees from a number of American universities.

The Prince of Wales, after an extended tour in Canada, also became our guest, visiting among other places New York, West Point, and Washington. The arrival in this country of King Albert and Queen Elizabeth of Belgium, accompanied by their son, was very pleasing to the American people. During the latter part of 1922 the former premier, Clemenceau, visited this country and was enthusiastically received by our citizens. He spoke to large audiences in various cities, upon conditions

among the countries of Europe. The coming of all these noted personages did a great deal to strengthen the friendly relations already existing between our government and those of the respective countries which they represented.

605. The Presidential Election of 1920. — In the Presidential campaign of 1920, the Republican National Convention met at Chicago early in June. The delegates to this convention nominated Warren G. Harding, United States Senator from Ohio, for President, and Calvin Coolidge, Governor of Massachusetts, for Vice-President.

The delegates of the Democratic National Convention assembled at San Francisco, June 28, 1920. They nominated for President James M. Cox, Governor of Ohio, and for Vice-President Franklin D. Roosevelt of New York, Assistant Secretary of the Navy. In the election the Republican party was successful.

606. Treaty with Germany. — A final treaty of peace with Germany was signed in Berlin, August 25, 1921, by the American Peace Commissioner and the German Minister for Foreign Affairs. This treaty as well as separate treaties with Austria and Hungary were ratified by the Senate, October 18, 1921.

It is provided in the treaty with Germany, among other things, that our government shall not be bound by any action taken by the League of Nations or by the Council or by the Assembly thereof, unless the United States shall expressly give its assent to such action.

607. Disarmament. — To avert, if possible, future wars, a "conference for the Limitation of Armament" was held in Washington Nov. 11, 1921. Secretary Hughes presided at this conference and proposed that the United States, Great Britain, and Japan join in an agreement to stop work on

battleships under construction, and to dismantle or destroy old ships. This arrangement was agreed to by treaties among the countries concerned.

608. Labor Troubles. — A recurrence of labor troubles and strikes took place in 1922. During the summer there were railroad strikes in various parts of the country, which delayed transportation and caused much inconvenience. Strikes also occurred in the coal-mining regions.

609. The European Reparations Conference. — An effort to settle the question of reparation to be paid by Germany as war damages to France and Great Britain was made at a conference held in London, December 9, 1922. The conference was attended by the Prime Ministers of Great Britain, France, Italy, and Belgium. After a three days' session no agreement was reached and an adjournment was taken to January 2, 1923, when the members of the conference met at Paris. At this meeting also no agreement was reached. This failure to agree may have considerable effect upon the final arrangement for the payment of the war debt due the United States.

610. A Forecast. — The United States, now the leading power of the world, has done more for world advancement than any other nation. The influence of the United States will hereafter be tremendous and potent for good. Our boys and girls are destined to live in a period of greater opportunity than their forefathers ever knew. To create and maintain world leadership, and to insure the respect of all governments and countries, will require greater patriotic effort and larger sacrifice than ever before demanded. The United States will, perhaps, in the near future, have a great share in shaping and controlling the destiny of the world. Those who are now boys and girls will, in a few years, control the United States and

determine the part that our government shall take in great world affairs.

SUMMARY

1. Declaration of Congress, April 6, 1917.
2. Revolution in Russia.
3. Trench warfare.
4. The need of ships.
5. Increased industry.
6. Government control of railroads.
7. The food problem.
8. The military training camps.
9. The selective draft. Liberty bonds.
10. General Pershing in command of the American forces.
11. How the women helped.
12. The great German drive.
13. The supreme command given to General Foch.
14. Further movements of the German forces.
15. Château-Thierry.
16. The second battle of the Marne. The turning point.
17. Advance of the allied armies.
18. The Argonne Forest.
19. The drive on the center.
20. The Hindenburg line smashed.
21. The fighting in other sections.
22. An exchange of diplomatic notes.
23. President Wilson's "Fourteen Points."
24. The Armistice.
25. The Conference at Paris.
26. What the war had cost.
27. Conditions after the war.
28. Labor troubles. Strikes.
29. The Boston Police Strike.
30. The death of a great American.
31. The American Legion.
32. A nation-wide movement for Americanization.
33. The Bolsheviki.
34. Distinguished visitors from England and Belgium.
35. The purchase of the Virgin Islands.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

1. When was a state of war declared between this country and Germany?
2. What was the cause of the Russian revolution in 1917?
3. Describe trench warfare.
4. Name some of the methods of our government for the prompt and effective carrying on of the war.
5. How was the training of soldiers provided for?
6. How did the women help during the war?
7. Describe the German movements in March, 1918.
8. What were some of the military events of the summer of 1918?
9. Name the principal military movements of September and October, 1918.
10. What were some of the military movements in other parts of Europe?
11. When was the Armistice granted? What were its conditions?
12. What was accomplished by the conference at Paris?
13. What action was first taken by the United States Senate on the Treaty and League of Nations Covenant?
14. What was the cost of the war in money, lives, and property?
15. What were the conditions in this country immediately after the war?
16. Name some movements toward Americanization.
17. Who were the Bolsheviki?
18. What distinguished visitors from abroad came to this country in 1919?
19. What islands were purchased in 1917 from Denmark? What is their strategic importance?

APPENDIX

DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

IN CONGRESS, JULY 4, 1776

A DECLARATION BY THE REPRESENTATIVES OF THE UNITED STATES
OF AMERICA, IN CONGRESS ASSEMBLED

WHEN, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident — that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or abolish it, and to institute a new government laying its foundations on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies, and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present king of Great Britain is a history of repeated

injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these States. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

1. He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

2. He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operations till his assent should be obtained and, when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

3. He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the Legislature — a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

4. He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the repository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

5. He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

6. He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected, whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise; the State remaining, in the meantime, exposed to all the dangers of invasions from without, and convulsions within.

7. He has endeavored to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the laws for the naturalization of foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

8. He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

9. He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

10. He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people and eat out their substance.

11. He has kept among us in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our Legislatures.

12. He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

13. He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitutions, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation;

14. For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us;

15. For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States;

16. For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world;

17. For imposing taxes on us without our consent;

18. For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of a trial by jury;

19. For transporting us beyond seas, to be tried for pretended offenses;

20. For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies;

21. For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of our governments;

22. For suspending our own Legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

23. He has abdicated government here, by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

24. He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burned our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

25. He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

26. He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

27. He has excited domestic insurrection among us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms; our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in our attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislatures to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have

reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the ties of our common kindred to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them as we hold the rest of mankind — enemies in war; in peace, friends.

We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved, and that, as free and independent States, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent States may of right do. And for the support of this Declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

APPENDIX

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

PREAMBLE

WE, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this CONSTITUTION for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I. THE LEGISLATIVE DEPARTMENT

SECTION I. *Congress in General*

All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

SECTION II. *House of Representatives*

1st Clause. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislature.

2d Clause. No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

3d Clause. Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and, excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of rep-

representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

4th Clause. When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

5th Clause. The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SECTION III. *The Senate.*

1st Clause. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each State, chosen by the legislature thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote.

2d Clause. Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year, and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one-third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any State, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

3d Clause. No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

4th Clause. The Vice-President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

5th Clause. The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a President *pro tempore*, in the absence of the Vice-President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

6th Clause. The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall all be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside; and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

7th Clause. Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

SECTION IV. *Both Houses.*

1st Clause. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by law make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

2d Clause. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

SECTION V. *The Houses Separately.*

1st Clause. Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner and under such penalties as each house may provide.

2d Clause. Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

3d Clause. Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

4th Clause. Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

SECTION VI. *Privileges and Disabilities of Members.*

1st Clause. The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall, in all cases except treason, felony and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from

the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

2d Clause. No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

SECTION VII. *Mode of passing Laws.*

1st Clause. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

2d Clause. Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate shall, before it become a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration two-thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

3d Clause. Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two-thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SECTION VIII. *Powers granted to Congress.*

The Congress shall have power—

1st Clause. To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts, and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

2d Clause. To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

3d Clause. To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

4th Clause. To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

5th Clause. To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

6th Clause. To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

7th Clause. To establish post-offices and post-roads:

8th Clause. To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

9th Clause. To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court;

10th Clause. To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offences against the law of nations;

11th Clause. To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

12th Clause. To raise and support armies; but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

13th Clause. To provide and maintain a navy;

14th Clause. To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

15th Clause. To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions;

16th Clause. To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

17th Clause. To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the Government of the United States; and to exercise like authority over all

places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings;—and

18th Clause. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

SECTION IX. *Powers denied to the United States.*

1st Clause. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

2d Clause. The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

3d Clause. No bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law shall be passed.

4th Clause. No capitation, or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken.

5th Clause. No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

6th Clause. No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

7th Clause. No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

8th Clause. No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States; and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them shall, without the consent of Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign State.

SECTION X. *Powers denied to the States.*

1st Clause. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass

any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

2d Clause. No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

3d Clause. No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II. THE EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT.

SECTION I. *President and Vice-President.*

1st Clause. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

2d Clause. Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress. But no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

[The 3d clause has been superseded by the 12th article of Amendments. See page xix.]

4th Clause. The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes, which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

5th Clause. No person except a natural-born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

6th Clause. In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President; and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability,

both of the President and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

7th Clause. The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

8th Clause. Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation:—

“I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States.”

SECTION II. *Powers of the President.*

1st Clause. The President shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

2d Clause. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint, ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law; but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

3d Clause. The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions, which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SECTION III. *Duties of the President.*

He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them

to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SECTION IV. *Impeachment of the President.*

The President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III. THE JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT.

SECTION I. *The United States Courts.*

The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the Supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SECTION II. *Jurisdiction of the United States Courts.*

1st Clause. The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; to controversies between two or more States; between a State and citizens of another State; between citizens of different States; between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens, or subjects.

2d Clause. In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a State shall be a party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

3d Clause. The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SECTION III. *Treason.*

1st Clause. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

2d Clause. The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV. MISCELLANEOUS PROVISIONS.

SECTION I. *State Records.*

Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general laws prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECTION II. *Privileges of Citizens.*

1st Clause. The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

2d Clause. A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

3d Clause. No person held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

SECTION III. *New States and Territories.*

1st Clause. New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States or parts of States, without the consent of the legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

2d Clause. The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States or of any particular State.

SECTION IV. *Guarantees to the States.*

The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; and on application of the legislature, or of the executive (when the legislature cannot be convened), against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V. POWERS OF AMENDMENT.

The Congress, whenever two-thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the legislatures of two-thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid, to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three-fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress: provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI. PUBLIC DEBT, SUPREMACY OF THE CONSTITUTION, OATH OF OFFICE, RELIGIOUS TEST.

1st Clause. All debts contracted and engagements entered into before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

2d Clause. This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof, and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

3d Clause. The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII. RATIFICATION OF THE CONSTITUTION.

The ratification of the conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

AMENDMENTS

PROPOSED BY CONGRESS AND RATIFIED BY THE LEGISLATURES OF THE SEVERAL STATES, PURSUANT TO THE FIFTH ARTICLE OF THE ORIGINAL CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE I. *Freedom of Religion.*

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II. *Right to bear Arms.*

A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free state, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III. *Quartering Soldiers on Citizens.*

No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IV. *Search Warrants.*

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V. *Trial for Crime.*

No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI. *Rights of Accused Persons.*

In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defence.

ARTICLE VII. *Suits at Common Law.*

In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States than according to the rules of the common law.

ARTICLE VIII. *Excessive Bail.*

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX. *Rights Retained by the People.*

The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X. *Reserved Rights of the States.*

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE XI.

The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit, in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

ARTICLE XII.

1st Clause. The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons

voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate; the President of the Senate shall, in presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted; the person having the greatest number of votes for President shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers, not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President.

2d Clause. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice.

3d Clause. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

ARTICLE XIII.

SECTION I. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

SEC. II. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XIV.

SECTION I. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United

States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law, nor deny any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

SEC. II. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, representatives in Congress, the executive and judicial officers of a State, or the members of the legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

SEC. III. No person shall be a senator or representative in Congress, or elector of President and Vice-President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath, as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may, by a vote of two-thirds of each house, remove such disability.

SEC. IV. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void.

SEC. V. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

ARTICLE XV.

SECTION I. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

SEC. II. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

APPENDIX

ARTICLE XVI.

The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes on incomes, from whatever source derived, without apportionment among the several States, and without regard to any census or enumeration.

ARTICLE XVII.

SECTION I. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, elected by the people thereof, for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote. The electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislatures.

SEC. II. When vacancies happen in the representation of any State in the Senate, the executive authority of such State shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies: Provided that the Legislature of any State may empower the executive thereof to make temporary appointments until the people fill the vacancies by election as the Legislature may direct.

SEC. III. This amendment shall not be so construed as to affect the election or term of any Senator chosen before it becomes valid as part of the Constitution.

ARTICLE XVIII.

SECTION I. After one year from the ratification of this article, the manufacture, sale, or transportation of intoxicating liquors within, the importation thereof into, or the exportation thereof from, the United States and all territory subject to the jurisdiction thereof, for beverage purposes, is hereby prohibited.

SEC. II. The Congress and the several States shall have concurrent power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

SEC. III. This article shall be inoperative unless it shall have been ratified as an amendment to the Constitution by the legislatures of the several States, as provided in the Constitution, within seven years from the date of the submission thereof to the States by the Congress.

ARTICLE XIX.

SECTION 1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any state on account of sex.

SECT. 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

DATE OF ADMISSION OF THE STATES

1. DELAWARE	Ratified the Constitution	Dec.	7, 1787
2. PENNSYLVANIA		Dec.	12, 1787
3. NEW JERSEY		Dec.	18, 1787
4. GEORGIA		Jan.	2, 1788
5. CONNECTICUT		Jan.	9, 1788
6. MASSACHUSETTS		Feb.	6, 1788
7. MARYLAND		April	28, 1788
8. SOUTH CAROLINA		May	23, 1788
9. NEW HAMPSHIRE		June	21, 1788
10. VIRGINIA		June	25, 1788
11. NEW YORK		July	26, 1788
12. NORTH CAROLINA		Nov.	21, 1789
13. RHODE ISLAND		May	29, 1790
14. VERMONT		March	4, 1791
15. KENTUCKY		June	1, 1792
16. TENNESSEE		June	1, 1796
17. OHIO		Feb.	19, 1803
18. LOUISIANA		April	8, 1812
19. INDIANA		Dec.	11, 1816
20. MISSISSIPPI		Dec.	10, 1817
21. ILLINOIS		Dec.	3, 1818
22. ALABAMA		Dec.	14, 1819
23. MAINE		March	15, 1820
24. MISSOURI		Aug.	10, 1821
25. ARKANSAS		June	15, 1836
26. MICHIGAN		Jan.	26, 1837
27. FLORIDA		March	3, 1845
28. TEXAS		Dec.	29, 1845
29. IOWA		Dec.	28, 1846
30. WISCONSIN		May	29, 1848
31. CALIFORNIA		Sept.	9, 1850
32. MINNESOTA		May	11, 1858
33. OREGON		Feb.	14, 1859
34. KANSAS		Jan.	29, 1861
35. WEST VIRGINIA		June	19, 1863
36. NEVADA		Oct.	31, 1864
37. NEBRASKA		March	1, 1867
38. COLORADO		Aug.	1, 1876
39. NORTH DAKOTA		Nov.	3, 1889
40. SOUTH DAKOTA		Nov.	3, 1889
41. MONTANA		Nov.	8, 1889
42. WASHINGTON		Nov.	11, 1889
43. IDAHO		July	3, 1890
44. WYOMING		July	10, 1890
45. UTAH		Jan.	4, 1896
46. OKLAHOMA		Nov.	16, 1907
47. NEW MEXICO		Jan.	6, 1912
48. ARIZONA		Feb.	14, 1912

LIST OF PRESIDENTS

1789-1797	GEORGE WASHINGTON of Virginia
1797-1801	JOHN ADAMS of Massachusetts
1801-1809	THOMAS JEFFERSON of Virginia
1809-1817	JAMES MADISON of Virginia
1817-1825	JAMES MONROE of Virginia
1825-1829	JOHN QUINCY ADAMS of Massachusetts
1829-1837	ANDREW JACKSON of Tennessee
1837-1841	MARTIN VAN BUREN of New York
1841	WILLIAM H. HARRISON of Ohio
1841-1845	JOHN TYLER of Virginia
1845-1849	JAMES K. POLK of Tennessee
1849-1850	ZACHARY TAYLOR of Louisiana
1850-1853	MILLARD FILLMORE of New York
1853-1857	FRANKLIN PIERCE of New Hampshire
1857-1861	JAMES BUCHANAN of Pennsylvania
1861-1865	ABRAHAM LINCOLN of Illinois
1865-1869	ANDREW JOHNSON of Tennessee
1869-1877	ULYSSES S. GRANT of Illinois
1877-1881	RUTHERFORD B. HAYES of Ohio
1881	JAMES A. GARFIELD of Ohio
1881-1885	CHESTER A. ARTHUR of New York
1885-1889	GROVER CLEVELAND of New York
1889-1893	BENJAMIN HARRISON of Indiana
1893-1897	GROVER CLEVELAND of New York
1897-1901	WILLIAM MCKINLEY of Ohio
1901-1909	THEODORE ROOSEVELT of New York
1909-1913	WILLIAM H. TAFT of Ohio
1913-	WOODROW WILSON of New Jersey

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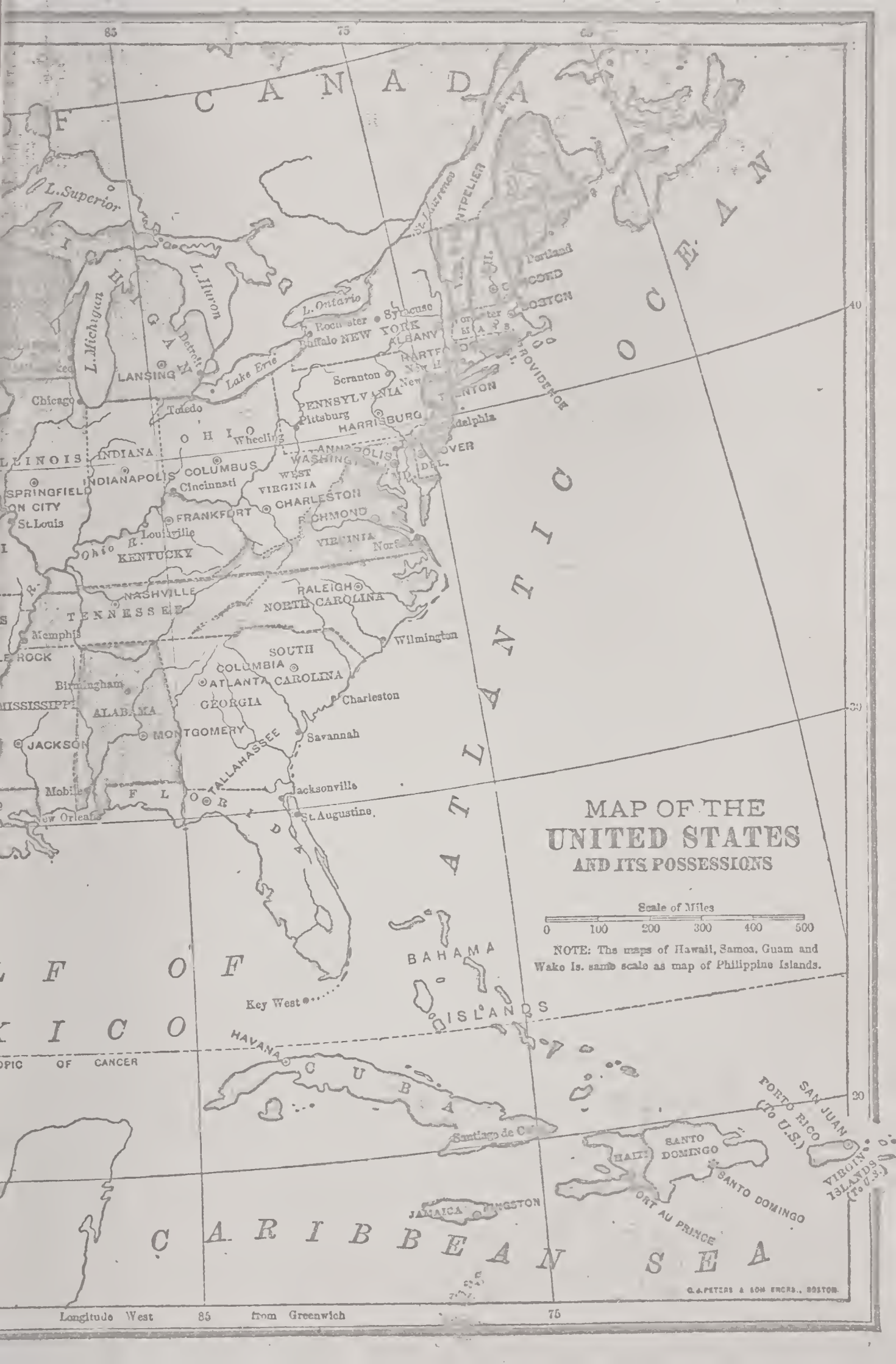
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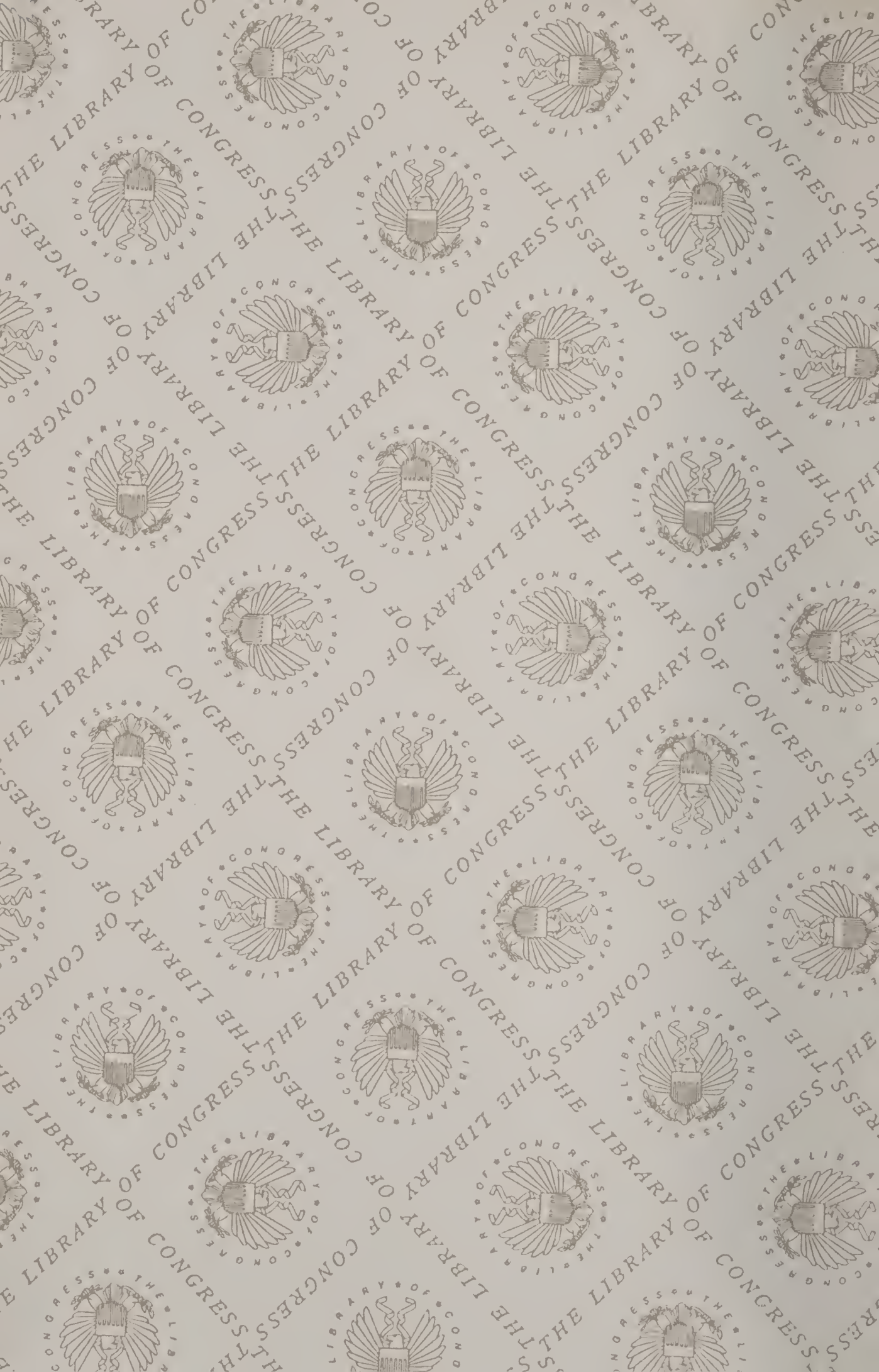




MAP OF THE
UNITED STATES
AND ITS POSSESSIONS



NOTE: The maps of Hawaii, Samoa, Guam and Wako Is. same scale as map of Philippine Islands.





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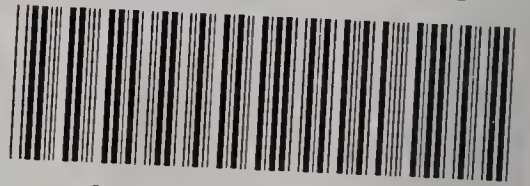
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